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ABSTRACT

This volume includes papers presented at the 1998 Japan Association for Language Teaching Conference. Section 1, "Voices of Experience," includes: "Towards More Use of English in Class by JTEs" (Midori Iwano); "Paperless Portfolios" (Tim Stewart); "Textbook Creation in Reverse Order for Chinese" (Chou Jine Jing); "Career Exploitation Activities for EFL Learners" (Kristin Johannsen); "Lights Up: Drama in the ESL Classroom" (James Welker); "Managing a Successful E-mail Exchange" (Katsumi Ito and Dorothy Zemach); "Preparing for the Possibilities of DVD: Exploiting Language in TV Commercials" (Tim Knowles); "Theme Music Presentation" (Dale Haskell); "Outside Taping for Fluency" (David Kluge and Matthew A. Taylor); "Content and Creation: Student-Generated Textbooks" (Paul Borg and Richard Humphries); "Preparing Students for the Electronic World" (Steve Witt); "Activities for the Independent Learner" (Steve Petrucione and Stephan Ryan); and "Learner Autonomy in Japanese Classrooms: An Exchange of Views" (Leni Dam, David Little, Haruko Katsura, and Richard Smith). Section 2, "Voices of Observation," includes: "Entrapped by Understanding: The Use of the First

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Focus on the Classroom:

Interpretations

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November 20-23, 1998
1998年11月20日～23日

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Gene van Troyer

JALT 98

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Omiya, Saitama, Japan
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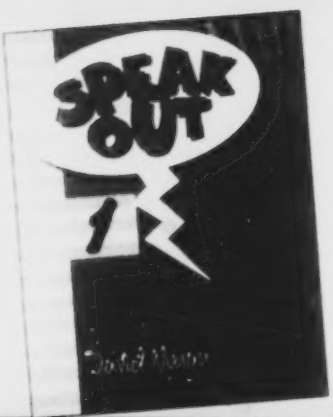

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On JALT98:
Focus on the Classroom: Interpretations

—JALT Conference Proceedings—
An annual volume produced by the Conference Editorial Team of the Japan Association for Language Teaching

September 1st 1999, Tokyo

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Welcome

We would like to welcome you, the reader, to this volume of papers written by presenters at JALT98. The 24th International JALT Conference, *Focus on the Classroom: Interpretations*, was held in Omiya, Saitama-ken in November 1998, and featured over 300 presentations. Similar to any other international convention, JALT98 was part ritual and part innovation: familiar in many ways, like an old friend, and enchanting too, like a new friendship. Indeed, we trust that voice of friendship quietly echoes for you through these pages.

Rather than group the papers by content area, or distinguish between practice and theory, we decided to organise the papers by voice. The JALT98 proceedings start with Voices of Experience, which are followed by *Voices of Observation*, *Voices of Interpretation*, and, finally, *Voices of Experimentation*. This creates, we believe, an intriguing mosaic of teacher and learner development processes at work, and captures, we hope, a strong sense of critical reflective practice.

Perhaps, the proceedings from a conference represent a passing consensus. Perhaps, they help naturalise existing trends, too. We cannot be certain. Fortunately, however, we may turn to you, the reader, for assistance. Please enjoy this recording of different voices according to your own needs and interests.

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Towards More Use of English in Class by JTEs

Midori T. Iwano, Nanzan Junior College

The language of instruction among Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) is an issue I have been following for the past 5 years. I would like to report on my findings and experiences in three parts: (a) the situation in my junior college classroom; (b) the guided discussion at JALT98; and (c) several practical proposals for increasing the use of English in class.

The situation in my junior college classroom

According to a survey by Koike and others in 1980, while 2% of JTEs teach all (*zenbu*) in English in their college and university English classes and 4% of them usually (*daitai*) use English, 60 % of JTEs hardly ever or never (*amari* or *zenzen)* use English in their college English classes (Koike et al., 1980, p. 70). With the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) or *Yakudoku* (meaning "read and translate"), a JTE can comfortably run a reading class in Japanese. "Although the (GTM) often creates frustration for students, it makes few demands on teachers" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 4). I remember disliking my JTEs' *Yakudoku* classes in college, as did my college friends when I asked them to recall their classes at an alumni meeting in Nagoya. However, I had never considered using alternative methods in my own classes until I was asked by my MAT supervisor, Nelson Einwachter from the School for International Training : "Why did you use Japanese to ask students if you could clean the blackboard?"

According to my students over the past 4 years, I am the only JTE who has been using English in class at my junior college. Of course, when I feel it necessary to use Japanese, I don't hesitate to. I encourage students in Japanese to ask clarifying questions, especially when the topic concerns course evaluation or required assignments. At the same time, I use English as the medium of instruction from the first class in April. I do not force students to use English, nor stop their use of Japanese. However, as Japanese students tend to be group-centered and conformist, they generally try to follow their teacher if they know what to do and how to do it. Thus, once a classroom norm or culture has been set, it is not too difficult for JTEs to increase their use of English as much as they want.

Such an increase can have direct benefits for the students. In April 1998, 26 students out of 27 in my English reading class answered yes to the question: *Do you want Midori to use English?* The girl who circled "no" thought she understood only 40% of my English on the first day. However, 7 months later, in November, 25 students out of 25 (two students had left the college before the summer) wanted me to keep using English. The lowest self-reported listening comprehension score by three students was 70% on that day. The development in listening comprehension from April clearly supports the truism that the more one is exposed to a language, the more one will learn—and the main venue for exposure to a foreign language is the classroom (Murphy & Sasaki, 1998).

What official support does the institution lend to such a view? Unfortunately, while the college brochure *Gakusei Binran* (1998, p. 115) states that all the courses listed in English are taught in English, my courses and all other JTEs' courses are printed in Japanese, as if suggesting that JTEs' use of Japanese in English classes is normal. Not wishing to cause offense to other faculty members, I have chosen not to act differently (Iwano, 1996). However, I do ensure that the syllabus written in Japanese informs students that "Ms. Iwano uses English in class except when the objective is for you to obtain basic translation techniques," and that "English is the communication language in

class, which has been upheld by your '*senpai*' (former students)" (p.181).

Although I encourage classroom communication in English, I should nevertheless acknowledge some merits of the GTM. As Larsen-Freeman (1986) observes,

> "[The GTM] was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature . . . it was thought that foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually . . . [and that] the mental exercise of learning it would be beneficial..." (p.4).

Therefore, I set aside two Japanese-only sessions to teach translation techniques from English to Japanese in the first semester. However, in the second semester of 1998, students negotiated with me to read at least 10 guided readers in 15 weeks rather than complete seven readers and one translation. They had learned in the first semester that it takes a lot of time and energy to properly translate an English story into Japanese. They consequently preferred to use the target language in class, as well as decided to read more English without translation. So, from the students' point of view, there is direct evidence that increased use of English by the teacher encourages them to learn English through actively using the foreign language in the classroom.

From my experience of using English to teach my English classes, I wanted to meet with other JTEs who have begun speaking more in English in class or who are considering doing so. This would provide an opportunity to discuss problems and solutions: the focus of the guided discussion at JALT98.

Insights from the JALT98 guided discussion

In my 45-minute guided discussion, my aim was to meet other JTEs and ask them the question: "Would you like to use more English in class ?" To my surprise, a third of about 30 participants were non-Japanese. This brought home to me that the issue of "L1 or L2?" or "more use of the target language" is a common concern for both JTEs and native-speaking English teachers or (native-speaking) Assistant Language Teachers, (ALTs).

I began my session by giving a "teaching preferences" questionnaire. I asked the participants to rank their agreement on a scale with a series of paired statements that were opposite in meaning. I then asked participants to discuss in small groups the reasons for their position so that they might see to what extent they agreed or not.

For such a group task, I prepared nine sets of statements by quoting or paraphrasing from recent influential books and articles about English teaching principles and approaches (Bartram and Walton, 1991; Brown, 1998; Ferguson, 1995; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Murphey, 1995). These paired statements were:

#1. I don't mind if my students laugh at me when I speak English./I get embarrassed if my students laugh at me when I speak English.
#2. When I make mistakes, I try to use them to learn something about English./When I make a mistake, it annoys me because it shows my students how bad my English is.
#3. I hate making a fool of myself./I don't mind making a fool of myself.
#4. I believe the ability to communicate in English is a goal of instruction./I think English learning helps students grow intellectually.
#5. I think English is to be used to learn./I think English is to be learned to use.
#6. I think errors are inevitable and tolerable./I think errors should be corrected.
#7. I'm involved in the social and personal development of my students./I'm only teaching them English.
#8. JTEs can become powerful role models for their students by speaking English in class./To use English among Japanese is unnatural, embarrassing and unconventional.

#9. We are judged by our expression./Our comprehension is more important than our expression.

Several questionnaire items proved to be somewhat ambiguous to the participants. Some JTEs asked for Statements #4, #5 and #9 to be clarified. As for #4, I introduced the historical controversy regarding the goals of English education in Japan: English as a practical communication tool vs. use of English for intellectual, mental and disciplinary training. The latter objective of learning English has long supported the GTM. After this clarification, it was suggested that this item be rephrased as: I believe the ability to communicate in English is the goal of instruction./I think knowledge of English linguistics is a goal of instruction. In the case of #5, I explained the difference between "using English to learn it," and "learning to use English (Richards & Rodgers, 1991, p. 66)." The former is what I have been trying in class since English is a foreign language in Japan. A revised version of this item reads: We learn English by using it./We learn English so that we can use it in the future. Finally, as for #9, I said I wanted my students to be more expressive rather than receptive; thanks to audience feedback, I was able to rephrase this statement as: We are judged by the content and correctness of our English expressions./Whether we understand or not is all that really matters.

The small-group discussion format proved quite fruitful, both in the quality of participant interaction and the resulting insights. Regarding questionnaire item #8, one ALT suggested that one reason why JTEs choose not to use English among other Japanese might be that their ALTs do not take the risk of speaking Japanese with them. A JTE reported that, together with a Japanese-American teacher hired at her junior high school, she had drastically changed their students' belief that "English is for foreigners." Throughout the discussion, statements related to the "accuracy vs. fluency" issue seemed to arouse heated interchange in groups. I used a timer that makes a loud beep to stop the groups as I do in my classroom, and was happy to see everybody talking loudly in English from the beginning.

Next I asked the participants to recall their former JTEs or former foreign language teachers. I asked if they had been taught in the L1 or L2, and if they had been corrected a lot. When I asked the whole group to share if they had ever met an ideal teacher, everybody burst into laughter! Several participants recalled learning foreign languages by the Audiolingual Method (ALM) in the 60's in the USA, whereupon a JTE argued that the real problem is that the majority of students cannot go abroad to learn English. My response was that this is a significant reason for JTEs to try to use English in class; if, indeed, the majority of students are unable to study English abroad, the Japanese classroom may well be their only opportunity to learn to use the language.

In the next part of the guided discussion, I asked the participants under what circumstances they would use the L1 or L2, as outlined by Ur (1997). I gave them Ur's checklist from JALT97, which lists six possible ways that teachers can use the L1 in the EFL class. They are: expressing approval, explaining the meaning of a new word, explaining a tricky grammar point, giving instructions, reprimanding and managing classroom, and chatting with students. Participants were asked to indicate whether they would use the L1 or L2 for all of those tasks. This was done individually first, then in small groups, before plenary feedback.

The group agreed that it is easier for a JTE to express approval in English than in Japanese. A JTE said he would use Japanese to explain the meaning of a new word or a tricky grammar point. Then the entrance exam hell and heavily loaded JTE's daily life were shared with a sigh and a snicker. I started feeling it was going to be hard to make a quick decision how to move the discussion on. I was behind schedule. Inside I was blaming the JTEs who had given me only sugar-coated feedback about the questionnaire. I felt that the JTEs were explaining to themselves why they did not

use English in class, and that the non-Japanese were being so sweet and sympathetic to the JTEs, but I told myself to be non-judgmental!

Finally, I introduced Murphey and Sasaki's "four incremental changes": (a) From conservatism to more risking-to-be-better (b) From all-or-nothing thinking to more incremental changes (c) From perfectionism to more humanism (d) From information giving to more comprehensible communicating (Murphey & Sasaki, 1998, p. 24 & p. 32). My plan was to sum up by leading the group discussion to these changes in beliefs and strategies, by connecting, for example, questionaire item #1 to change 1, #2 to 2, #3 to 3 and so on. However, time was running out, and I was feeling uneasy.

A closing comment by a JTE concluded the session: whether to use Japanese or English, when and how much is all up to the objectives of the English class. This statement is absolutely true. However, I was afraid that JTEs might take this closing comment as an excuse for not speaking English in class, because there are many, many classes prepared for students only to pass written examinations; what's more research shows that "JTEs use Japanese for over 90% of the talking time in their lessons."(Murphey & Sasaki, 1998) I acknowledged that everybody present had agreed to try harder toward more use of English in class. I thanked the group, wished them good luck and collected the written feedback. However, I wasn't fully satisfied with the session and so I decided to write this paper.

Proposals

Two short experiences provide an interesting paradox. I once heard a JTE say, "My students don't want me to speak English in class." That is, this teacher believed there was no need to change, so change was impossible. On the other hand, when I once asked my class at the end of a lesson "What was useful to you?", I got the reply "Nothing." This feedback so hurt me that I dropped a whole activity that I had been experimenting with (Iwano, 1995). On hearing this, a classmate at SIT asked me how many students had said so. "Just one," I replied. Such support from a colleague helped me realize that I, like many teachers venturing into new territory in the classroom, tend to overreact to the situation and jump to quick conclusions before giving new ideas the chance they deserve.

My first suggestion, therefore, is that JTEs approach the transition to classroom communication in English with patience; one must be prepared to allow considerable time for the development of new techniques. In order to approach that transition, however, one must be a willing believer in the benefits of the planned change.

My 5 years of practice in using English in class has totally changed me. Moreover, the junior college itself has been forced to change to stay alive for the past years. The college brochure still states that all the courses listed in English are taught in English (p. 115), and all other JTEs' courses including mine are printed in Japanese, as if suggesting that JTEs' use of Japanese in English classes is normal. However, the latest college brochure (1999) shows a change: Some courses printed in Japanese are taught by native-speaking English teachers! In other words, JTEs will be forced to change if they want to keep their positions at school.

According to my November 1998 survey, 100% of my students answered yes to the question, *Do you think Midori should keep using English in her first year students' classes next year?* In the words of Mark Clarke, one of the main speakers at JALT98, I am "a service giver", and my students are "service receivers." For me, this means that I should meet their needs as best I can. Clarke also emphasized the importance of "coherence and flexibility" and "learning as change over time." Indeed, my goal is to be coherent in using English, and flexible in using Japanese.

Some participants in the guided discussion stated in Japanese in their written feedback that they would like to use more English, but were not confident about their English. This is important to understand clearly.

Indeed, from another survey that I did in March 1997, nine out of ten JTEs attending a local JALT meeting answered that they also worried about their own English. So did I earlier. In fact, it is quite unbelievable how much I had worried about, and been afraid of, my own English, my students' feedback—especially returning students' from English speaking countries and, above all, my Japanese colleagues' reactions!

Do you remember the historical controversy regarding the goals of English education in Japan that I reported in Part 2? I learned that Monbusho had taken the side of English as a practical communication tool. So, I ask JTEs: Who has long supported the GTM or *Yakudoku*? Who has made you feel so fearful of making errors in class?

If you are a JTE and you don't have a model foreign language teacher among your former teachers or *senpai*, you can create an ideal role model in your mind. With that image in your mind, you can learn classroom English, rehearse your lesson, record your English and listen to it critically, as I used to. Then you can start your class with a smile and greetings in English. Set a friendly classroom norm, use more English in class each day, and your students will respect you; your English will continuously develop, and so will your confidence. And... you'll become humble enough to learn English with your students happily ever after!

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Paperless Portfolios

Timothy Stewart, Miyazaki International College

If your office looks like mine used to, there are papers everywhere and the floor is a minefield of paper stacks. This article introduces portfolio formats that can decrease the growing mountains of paper found in teacher's offices.

I have been using electronic portfolios for the past four years in university classes. These portfolio formats include audio tape (see Stewart & Pleisch, 1998), video tape, and e-mail portfolios. Here, I focus on formats transmitted by e-mail and outline several ways in which computers can be used to compose portfolios.

A portfolio approach to assessment allows teachers to capture each student's best work. Portfolio-based assessment has advantages over traditional assessment instruments for both teachers and students (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 1993; Valencia, 1990). First, good assessment is based on authentic tasks, contexts, and texts. As students perform a variety of tasks in typical courses, a portfolio for assessment should reflect the same diversity of material, while encouraging the use of different methods to evaluate learning. Second, assessment at its best is a process that chronicles development. A writing portfolio, for example, should contain drafts of work for more than one genre. Third, curricular and pedagogical values should guide assessment, and portfolios readily allow for this. Fourth, portfolios encourage critical reflection, which is indispensable for meaningful assessment.

Why paperless portfolios?

Paperless portfolios are similar to conventional portfolios of writing and reading in most respects. Electronic portfolios can be used for both evaluative and developmental purposes. One important difference to conventional paper portfolios is the variety of skills that can be evaluated over time. Audio and video tape formats allow students to track their own progress in speaking and listening. The portability of electronic portfolios means students can access their work freely outside of the classroom. Also, e-mail makes possible rapid written communication over distances between students themselves, as well as with the instructor. Another difference is that such portfolios add to the variety of ways in which students can communicate with peers and instructors. This motivates learners as it is more exciting to review a classmate's taped or e-mail message than it is to read papers pulled from a folder. Furthermore, these portfolios form records of student achievement in all skill areas that can be used by both learners and teachers for reflection and development. Finally, paperless portfolios can decrease the flow of paper in a course.

Focus on fluency: E-mail "secret partner" journals

Secret journals in paper formats have been described elsewhere (Bunker & Yang, 1994; Green & Green, 1993). Here, I outline a type of e-mail journal to help students improve writing fluency (see also, Stewart, 1996). Prerequisite skills are basic typing and facility with e-mail.

Selecting partners

1) Ask students to complete a survey of interests.
2) Have students choose pen names. Pair up students in your class with those in a like-sized class with similar writing abilities and interests, and who are unlikely to know one another well. If class numbers do not match, ask one of your best writers to do two journals.

Tracking journals

1) Create a list of partner names and corresponding e-mail addresses.

2) Send messages from your students to your colleague for him/her to forward to the appropriate secret journal partner in his/her class. Check that the message has no information that could be used to identify the student.

Grades and corrections

1) Assign a grade for writing passages completed on time, of the appropriate length, and which contain relevant content. This can help motivate potentially tardy partners.
2) Occasionally, you may wish to inform your students about the quality of their secret journal messages. Keep in mind that these are dialogues between students where fluency, not accuracy, is the objective.

Focus on clarity and accuracy: Annotations for essay correction and dialogue journals

Annotated comments

Imagine no more red marks on student papers. In fact, there doesn't even need to be a physical piece of paper! Exchanges of written work can be made electronically via e-mail attachments or on diskette, and correction guidance can be placed into papers through annotated comments (Wagner, 1997). This method allows teachers to collect electronic drafts of writing assignments that can be stored in computer folders serving as writing portfolios and/or graded separately.

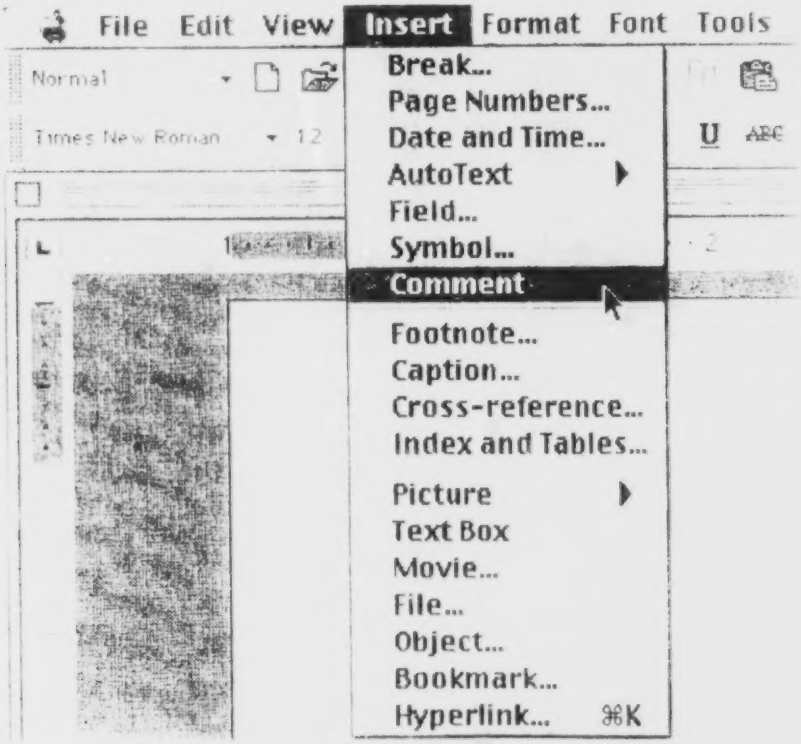

Figure 1. Drop-down menu for inserting annotated comments

With Microsoft Word 98, teachers can insert numbered comment brackets anywhere within a text. Inserted comments are sign posted in a text by highlighting and numbered brackets. An annotated comment can contain clues such as correction symbols, or other information to lead students to correct errors. The annotation feature on earlier

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versions of Word allows users to place correction symbols directly into a text (Wagner, 1997).

How do you do it?

1) Position the cursor at the spot where you want to insert an annotation.
2) Select *Insert* on the menu bar and choose *Comment*.
3) To change comments, choose *Comment* from the *View* menu. A window opens at the base of the document containing the annotated comments listed in numerical order. Make desired changes and then click the *close* button and save the change.
4) To read comments, a student simply places the cursor over any part of a highlighted annotation. A message box containing the annotated comment appears on the screen. Alternatively, see point 3.
5) After changing their text, a student can use the cursor to highlight a numbered comment bracket and press the *delete* key to delete the annotation signpost.

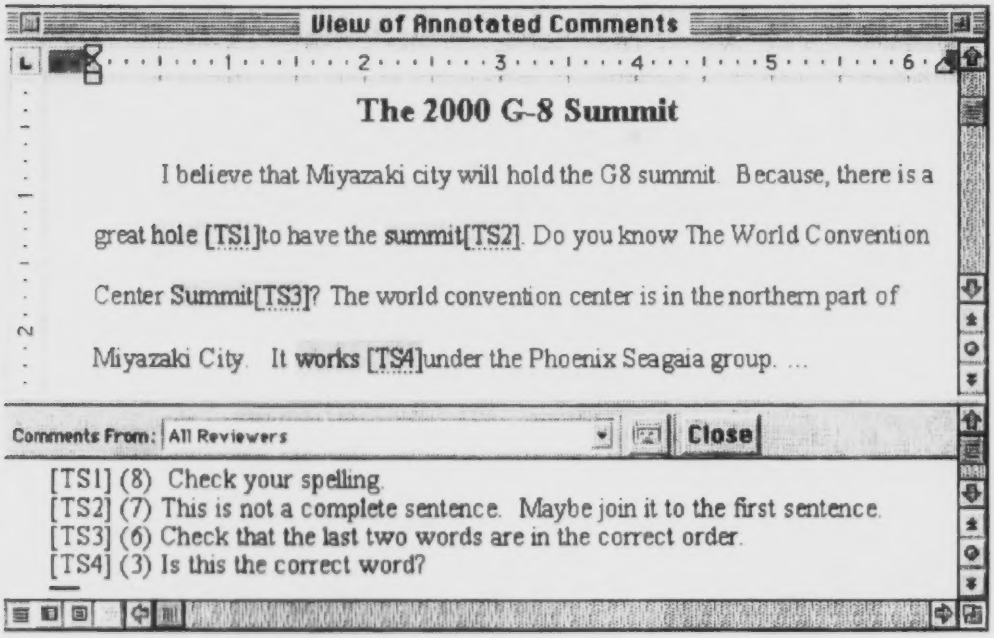
View of Annotated Comments
The 2000 G-8 Summit
I believe that Miyazaki city will hold the G8 summit. Because, there is a great hole [TS1]to have the summit[TS2]. Do you know The World Convention Center Summit[TS3]? The world convention center is in the northern part of Miyazaki City. It works [TS4]under the Phoenix Seagaia group. ...
Comments From: All Reviewers
Close
[TS1] (8) Check your spelling.
[TS2] (7) This is not a complete sentence. Maybe join it to the first sentence.
[TS3] (6) Check that the last two words are in the correct order.
[TS4] (3) Is this the correct word?

Figure 2. Screen for viewing and amending comments

Dialogue journals

Dialogue journals are discussions between students and their instructor about course subject matter. Some error correction can be done; however, this journal should be kept as non-threatening as possible to encourage an exchange of ideas that might not occur during regular class sessions. Journals of about 200 words are typed each week in a word processing program. Students transmit journal entries as e-mail attachments. Teacher responses to students' questions and comments are inserted into the original text as annotated comments and sent back to the students.

Conclusion

Paperless portfolios include all of the advantages inherent in traditional formats, but they contain features that can increase motivation in some students. Electronic portfolios chronicle development in more

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dynamic ways than do traditional paper portfolios by including the use of speaking and listening, as well as computer technology. In addition, they are more portable than most traditional paper portfolios and, thus, allow greater flexibility in their use.

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Textbook Creation in Reverse Order for Chinese

Chou Jine Jung, University of Tsukuba

Introduction

During the past 9 years working as a Chinese teacher, I have endeavored to enhance the textbooks I use each year. To my regret, I found that there was no textbook that satisfied both my students and myself. Most books are grammar-centered and contain many unnatural expressions or mistakes. What's more, the stories for conversation dialogues always look like a police inquiry. Most students lose interest in studying with this kind of text, so for this reason I devised a new teaching method called TCRO (Textbook Creation in Reverse Order Method). I used this TCRO method for a trial term from April 1998 with my intermediate Chinese class.

In a normal class, teachers decide what textbook they are going to use at the very beginning. Instead of doing this, TCRO asks students to create their own textbook during the year and teach the lessons they create to the rest of the class. The teacher's only role is one of an advisor or helper in the class. Since TCRO is a student-centered method, it gives the initiative to the students, and encourages them to study much more positively than before. Students choose a topic of their own liking for their lesson at the beginning, then collect the words and expressions they are really interested in, before they finally create a text of their own making. Students therefore study with a much higher level of motivation because the topic and subject matter are of their own choosing. The teacher helps all students at each step by giving them useful advice, and this helps to form a tight relationship between the student and teacher. At the end of the year, students are asked to teach the text they have created themselves to the rest of the class. This helps students develop an in-depth understanding of what they study, as well as share their experiences with other students.

Procedure

1. *Course introduction:* At the beginning, the teacher must describe the TCRO method as well as the year's schedule to the class, to provide the students with an overview of what they need to do during the year. When doing this, it is advisable to do a mini-TCRO demonstration to help students get a firmer grasp of the method. For example:

   Give a small piece of paper to each student and ask him/her to write down one expression that interests them the most in their native language (Japanese). Then the teacher helps the students one by one to form a correct expression of the target language. (For the demonstration use an unknown language, e.g., Spanish, Korean, Thai, or some language you are able to deal with, which will make the demonstration that much more entertaining.) After a short period of self-study by the students, ask them to teach it to the class.

2. *Dividing into groups:* Divide the class into several groups. The ideal number of students in one group is 3-4 students. As there will be a lot of group meetings outside class, it is better to ask students to form a group with people they find easy to get on with. For this reason, some free discussion time before the groups are decided will be most beneficial.

3. *Choosing a topic:* Every group chooses their favorite topic through discussion in the class. If two or more groups choose the same topic, let the students negotiate about which topics they finally decide on. A list of suggested topics given by the teacher may help students to find their own; however, to maintain originality of the students' thinking, the teacher should not be involved too much in the students' decision-making. Alternatively, you could also ask students to form a group with people who are interested in the same topic.

4. *Collecting words and expressions:* All groups are asked to collect the necessary new words and expressions through a questionnaire. After that, each group must decide through group discussion what content they are going to study.

5. *Manuscript writing in Japanese (Thinking):* Ask each group to have a discussion and let each member of the group choose one scene under that group's topic for which they are responsible. Each student in the group must make a draft conversation dialogue about the scene he/she chooses. The conversation dialogue should be written in their native language (in this case, Japanese). This is quite important, because if you ask students to write in Chinese directly, most of them will just use words and expressions they have studied and create a low-level dialogue, which is far from their original thinking. Moreover, the native language (Japanese) dialogue helps the teacher know what the students' original thinking was. When writing at this step, students must as far as possible include words and expressions they have collected in their dialogues.

6. *Text writing in Chinese (Expression):* Students put their Japanese dialogues into Chinese without consulting any book, dictionary or other person. This is the best way to find how much gap there is between their original thinking and their level of Chinese expression. It is the responsibility of the teacher to help the student fill in the gaps.

7. *Proofreading and errata:* The teacher proofreads and corrects any mistakes for students. After consultation with the teacher, students must create a list of errors for their mistakes made in step 6. Each item

on the list contains their original thinking in Japanese, an original Chinese expression, and the correct or appropriate Chinese expression together with the reason for the error. Every student must make duplicate copies of their errata report and distribute them to the rest of the class. In this way, each student will have the errata reports for the entire class. This will help students engage in cooperative study.

8. *Textbook creation:* After correcting of all the mistakes, each group must create a lesson, which includes several (corresponding to the number of students in that group) conversation dialogues, a complete grammar notes and drill as well as the word list for the groups topic.
9. *Teaching (presentation) and evaluation:* Each group teaches their own lesson to the rest of the class. Usually it takes an hour for a group to do their teaching. Students can teach their lesson any way that they choose, but they must give a quiz to the class after their presentation. The other students do an evaluation of the presenters after each lesson is taught. During the preparation for teaching and quiz making, the presenters deepen their understanding of their own lesson. The quiz and evaluation helps other students concentrate on the lesson being taught.

Conclusion

At the end of the first TCRO trial in my class, I learned that most students like this way of studying and that many make rapid progress using this method. Most importantly, students do not worry about making mistakes in front of their peers, which is quite the reverse of how most students start off, i.e., reserved and quiet. However, there are still some problems occurring in class that need to be addressed in future research. One is that both the teacher and students must spend a lot of time outside class proofreading and correcting. Another is that when students do not finish assignments on time, this has a negative effect on the schedule for the year.

TCRO is based on the natural way in which humans generate language (from deep structure to surface structure). It helps students to recognize the right way of studying independently. This trial of TCRO took one entire year, but TCRO is a fundamental way of teaching. Conversely, a teacher can also use a mini-TCRO for an hour's teaching during class time. Moreover, because of its essential elements, TCRO can be used in any target language, not just Chinese. Above all, TCRO helps to stimulate and heighten student motivation to learn the new language.

Career Exploration Activities for EFL Learners

Kristin L. Johannsen, Kansai Gaidai University

Introduction

Choosing a career is a matter of great importance to all students in higher education, and nowhere is this more true than in Japan. The economic climate of recent years has made many Japanese students deeply concerned about their future in the working world.

Career choice is an ideal topic for the communicative language classroom. It is highly motivating, because it directly addresses an important personal concern of the students. In addition, it allows a natural integration of language skills, as students take in information by listening and reading,

and then reflect, write, and share ideas through group discussion and pairwork.

I will briefly describe a unit of ten career exploration activities developed for classes in the Intensive English Studies program at Kansai Gaidai University. The activities have been used with first- and second-year junior college students, and university freshmen. Teachers can easily adapt them to other classroom situations.

The central emphasis of the unit is a list kept by each student, entitled "My Future Career" and headed simply, "I would like my future career to include these things...." After each activity, students reflect and discuss what they have learned, and then spend a few minutes adding new items on their lists. At the end of the unit, students draw on the list to write an essay about their future goals.

Ten career exploration activities

1. Twenty Things As homework, students list "20 things they love to do." In class, they work in groups to analyze them according to criteria such as: activities done alone/with a small group/with a large group, activities involving the whole body/mind/hands/ senses, relaxing/exciting, indoors/outdoors, and so on. Groups discuss other possible ways to classify favorite activities, and add more categories. Finally, the students total the number of activities they have checked for each category, and discuss the patterns they find.

2 .Collage Students bring old magazines with pictures to class, and make large collages of images that reflect their interests or otherwise appeal to them. When the collages are finished, the class is divided. Half the students hang their collages on the wall and explain why they selected the pictures, while the other students circulate, looking at collages and asking questions. The groups later switch roles. This activity is particularly appealing to students who learn in a visual mode.

3. Personality Test Students answer a simplified questionnaire based on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, an instrument widely used by psychologists to categorize personalities into 16 basic types. After scoring their results, they receive a description of their "type," along with a list of 20-30 careers typically chosen by people of that type, adapted from a book for native speakers of English (Tieger & Barron-Tieger, 1995). Students compare their descriptions in groups, discuss items that they feel are particularly accurate or inaccurate, and talk about the suggested careers. These descriptions provide extensive opportunity for vocabulary work.

4. "Sherlock Holmes" Game After discussing how the great fictional detective could deduce a great deal of information from a small piece of evidence, students are put in groups. Each student chooses 3-5 items from his/her wallet (such as a good-luck charm, a sheet of postage stamps, and an old movie ticket) and puts them in an envelope labeled only with his/her student ID number. The teacher redistributes the envelopes, and groups write descriptions of what they deduce about the character of the person who owns the items. The descriptions are read out to the class, and owners claim their envelopes. Students then examine the contents of their own book bags, purses, or backpacks and report on the personality of the "owner," writing about themselves in the third person. For homework, they write a detective report on the person who lives in their room or apartment, trying to view themselves in an objective way as Sherlock Holmes would.

5. Life Stories As homework, students write out detailed descriptions of three accomplishments they are proud of. After discussing the different types of skills and abilities a person might have, students read through a standard breakdown used by career counselors (Bolles, 1997) which lists and classifies 71 different physical, mental, and interpersonal skills. As students read about their accomplishments, a partner checks off the physical, mental, and interpersonal skills that were displayed.

6. The Credits Students do a short reading on all the workers whose efforts are embodied in a the production of a book, from the forester who supervises the logging to the truck driver who delivers the books to the shop. In groups, students are given a common object (such as a tea bag or music CD) and asked to brainstorm a list of all the occupations that were involved in its production—similar to the credits at the end of a movie. The groups are then re-combined, and students listen and take notes on the "credits" for each of the other objects. Finally, students brainstorm the "credits" for an object related to one of their interests (such as a dress or skis).

7. The Worst Job in the World Students fantasize about the worst possible job for them, and write about it in the present tense, describing it in detail as though it were real. They share their paragraphs in groups, amid much laughter. Typical examples are prison guard and inspector in a fish cannery. Students then change each job description into its exact opposite, "The Best Job in the World." For example, "I work in a prison full of angry criminals" becomes "I work in a kindergarten full of happy children." "I do the same thing all day" becomes "I do many different things every day."

8. The Wrong Job The teacher assigns each student a job completely unsuited to him/her by opening the Yellow Pages at random. Examples are construction machinery sales and dog grooming. They write a paragraph describing their job duties, and how they feel about the job. After sharing these paragraphs with their group, students are then asked to imagine how they would change the job to make it more suitable for them. Ideas they generate include aiming for a promotion, or incorporating elements such as training others, research, or starting one's own business. These provide further clues to future job satisfaction.

9. Values In groups, students discuss the meaning of a number of values such as independence, altruism, creativity, and variety, and how they apply in a job setting. A method is presented (Bolles, 1997) for prioritizing any list of items by choosing between all possible dyads and then totaling the responses. Students rank their own job values in this way, and discuss the results in their groups.

10. What is this Job? Students show their completed "My Future Career" list to three friends or family members, translating for anyone who doesn't speak English. They then ask the three people for their ideas about what specific career the list seems to point to.

Final Essay After completing all the activities, students write an essay summarizing what they have learned about themselves, and what directions they hope to pursue in the future. I respond to each essay with extensive comments on the content, and questions for the student to think about.

Conclusion

Evaluation for these activities will depend on the teacher's individual philosophy. In my situation, I evaluate holistically on the basis of the final essay. I consider that the objectives of the unit have been met if the final essay shows the student has clarified aspects of his/her future direction and identified areas that still need further thought.

Student feedback has been overwhelmingly positive. Most students say the career exploration activities have been very useful in clarifying their future, and many say they enjoy using English to investigate a personally significant topic. In the words of one student, "Thank you for giving a great opportunity to let me think about my future. I'm very appreciated it."

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Lights Up: Drama in the EFL Classroom

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Introduction

In the eternal search for ways to motivate our students, many teachers have turned to drama. If it stimulates us, perhaps it will do the same for our students. In response, several books of theater activities are now available specifically for ESL/EFL (e.g., Butterfield, 1993; Maley & Duff, 1982). These books have at least two shortcomings for the Japanese EFL classroom. First, they were written for Western students in a Western context. Second, these books offer ready-made activities that do not fit neatly into classes based on the standard conversation textbooks many of us must work with.

As an alternative, the theater offers ways to motivate our students. More useful than lists of ready-made activities are techniques that we can easily incorporate into any activity to make it more stimulating to our students. Of the numerous devices and techniques employed in the theater, six-space, movement, motivation, emotion, action, and reaction are most useful to the language classroom. Pairing them up we have three tools we can use to enhance existing activities or build new ones: space and movement, motivation and emotion, and action and reaction.

Space and movement

Space is critical in the theater—performers need ample and appropriately laid out space to move and perform. Directors often have performers move around in the middle of otherwise static situations to raise the interest and energy levels for both the audience and the actors.

In the classroom, movement will do the same for students. Our students are also performers, yet we seldom provide them with space in which to perform. Even the act of having students stand up and move the desks, or if necessary moving to the part of the room without desks, gets their hearts pumping faster and increases their energy level.

Implementation

- Rearrange the desks and the students to help them understand that they are not a passive audience to the teacher's performance. Try various layouts depending on the activity. Further rearrange the desks whenever you do role plays and dialogues to help both "set the stage" and get the students in the right mindset for the activity—even if the activity is "just" a static conversation.
- Have your students move around as often as possible, especially when it goes along with a role play or textbook dialogue. Time lost preparing is made up for in added energy and enthusiasm.

The single caveat for both the theater and the classroom is that too much movement may lead to a loss of focus. Finding the right balance is key.

Motivation and emotion

Few actors will let a director tell them to move across the stage without knowing why. Scripts are analyzed for subtexts and the relationships between characters are carefully studied so the performers fully understand their motivation. Underlying motivation are the emotions that a character is feeling. Without motivation, a performance cannot help but be stilted. Teachers should expect the same in the classroom.

Textbook dialogues and role plays often have only the obvious motivation of exchanging information or making plans, if any at all; for example, introducing yourself to a classmate, making plans for the weekend, asking for or giving directions to the station. Life isn't that simple. Adding extra

motivation or emotion to a dialogue, role play, or even the reading of a passage from a textbook will make the activity more realistic, interesting, and motivating.

Implementation

- Have students practice a short dialogue, a sentence, or a basic greeting using various emotions. This will show students that the same words can have many different meanings depending on how they are spoken.
- Give students a simple emotion or motivation to use when reading a dialogue out of the textbook or performing a role play. It is more interesting when the subtext is not obvious from the "script." For instance, a conversation between two strangers at a bus stop could involve one person being in a very bad mood and/or one person who secretly thinks the other is very attractive. If the teacher gives each person their motivation and/or emotion on a card, students can try to guess what was on their partner's card. With brave students, their interpretation can be acted in front of the whole class, and everyone can try to guess the real situation.
- Add a humorous or absurd element to a situation whenever possible to relax students and reduce inhibitions.

Action and reaction

Good performers always listen, observe, and react. Inexperienced performers, on the other hand, often merely wait to say their next line. When students do the same, they may answer a question that was never asked or greet a person who was not yet introduced.

If students learn to listen to each other and genuinely react, they become better prepared to use English in the real world—one in which their "partner" hasn't memorized the other end of a textbook dialogue.

Implementation

- Take away the script as often as possible. Role plays are better than memorizing dialogues if the goal is for students to genuinely interact.
- To encourage students to learn to improvise, give students time to plan a dialogue or skit, but don't let them write and memorize lines.
- For role plays, explain the general situation to the whole class and then give cards with roles and motivations to each student. If a student doesn't know the motivation of the other student(s), she must genuinely listen and react to their actions. She cannot prepare.
- Use improvisational activities like TheatreSports (Heal & Haig, 1998) to help build students' spontaneity. Like many sports competitions, theatre sports require teams of performers, an audience, and judges. The teams challenge each other to improvise a scene with set limits and goals. For example, one game strictly sets the number of words each performer uses when she speaks; for example, one performer must always use three words, another five. A different game requires at least one of the performers to die within a minute.

Hints for teachers

- Teacher enthusiasm must be much higher than the level of enthusiasm expected from the students. The teacher must truly believe in theater-based activities for them to work.
- Model the behavior/level of acting you want students to perform. Show them what an unenthusiastic student with a monotone voice sounds like, and contrast it with an enthusiastic performance. Exaggerate both and get them laughing and enjoying themselves before they begin.
- Small groups of two to five students tend to be the most productive and enjoyable for most activities.
- Audiences aren't necessary. While some students may enjoy the idea of

performing for an audience, others will be terrified. Students usually need no more audience than an enthusiastic teacher stopping to observe for a minute or two before moving on.

- Role plays work best when you establish a conflict to resolve or goal to reach within a short time.
- Keep the time limited. Don't make students half-heartedly go through the activity wondering when it's over— instead have them wishing they could have had a little more time. Next time they will be more enthusiastic.

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Managing a Successful Classroom E-mail Exchange

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Getting the most out of a classroom e-mail exchange requires careful consideration and planning. Teachers who start the project with clear and similar goals, take steps to prepare their students, and devote time to monitoring and facilitating the project will most likely see their students enjoying and benefiting from the correspondence. In this article, the authors, one in Japan with EFL students and the other in the US with JFL students, share observations and advice drawn from several years of managing classroom e-mail exchanges.

Setting goals

Before setting up an e-mail exchange, make sure you decide upon specific goals and procedures. Ask yourself:

(1) Will this be a required part of my class, or will it be offered as an "extra" activity?
(2) What do I want my students to accomplish? (i.e., gain writing fluency; exchange cultural information; practice specific vocabulary or grammatical structures; increase motivation through using English as an authentic communication tool.)
(3) How much control do I have over my students' writing? (i.e., can I take my students to the computer lab? Can I lower grades if the assignments are not done?)
(4) How often and for how long do I want students to write?
(5) Will my goals best be met by having students correspond with other ESL/EFL learners, native speakers, or other foreign language learners?

Answers to questions such as these should be written out both to clarify your goals for yourself and to communicate them to your cooperating teacher.

Finding a partner class

Perhaps the most widely used site is the Intercultural E-Mail Classroom Connections at [http://www.stolaf.edu/network/iecc], where teachers can both post requests for partner classes and respond to others'

requests. Postings are divided into several categories, such as partner classes for elementary, secondary, and post-secondary classes, and surveys and projects. The International Tandem Network at [http://www.slf.ruhr-uni-bochum.de/email/idxeng00.html] matches individual students with a partner who is learning their native language; currently, Japanese students can be matched with English, French, or German speakers who are studying Japanese. In addition, for each of the above languages, there is a bilingual discussion forum on topics related to language learning and cross-cultural issues. The tandem network also handles requests for partner classes.

Once you have found a potential partner class, negotiate terms of the project with the cooperating teacher. In particular, make sure that you both agree on the following points:

(1) *How often should students write?*
Having students both send and receive one letter per week generally works well. Designating a day of the week by which each class should respond helps easily identify students who have not sent their weekly letter.

(2) *What will you do if a student does not write?*
If students are receiving grades or credit for the class, it is possible to work the e-mail project into the curriculum, and deduct points or lower grades for missed or poorly done assignments. Other methods of enforcement could include phoning or e-mailing students to remind them to send their letters, or confronting them directly in class. In our experience, students who have not sent a letter on time usually have a reason, such as illness or a schedule problem. Such students can "make up" the gap by writing two letters the following week. It is important to inform the cooperating teacher of the reason for the missing letter, and of the steps taken to prompt the student to write. If a student reports not having received a letter, it is appropriate to e-mail the cooperating teacher, who should be responsible for finding out what has happened. In the meantime, the student who has not received a letter should go ahead and write anyway; in this way, s/he can still practice his/her language skills, and keep to the assigned schedule.

(3) *What will you do if one of your students drops the class, or if your numbers do not match up evenly to begin with?*
At the beginning of the term, ask if there are any students interested in having more than one partner (perhaps offer extra credit for taking on a second partner). You might also ask colleagues if they have students who would be interested in joining your project. It is a good idea to have a back-up partner or two in advance, so that time is not lost during the term hunting for a replacement partner.

(4) *How will you evaluate the quality of what students write? How will you know if the goals you set are being met?*
One approach is to require students to print hard copies of the letters they both send and receive, to be interleaved in chronological order and kept in a binder, which the teacher can then take in several times during the term. Students can also meet every few weeks in small groups to discuss their projects, while you circulate to listen to the group discussions. Alternatively, students could cc their letters to you or show the letters once a week at the start of class.

In addition to finding a class whose goals and methods approximate to your own, consider such factors as student age and gender, and the personality of the cooperating teacher, with whom you will be communicating extensively!

Preparing the students
Before beginning the project, survey of your students to determine their familiarity with typing, computers, and e-mail. You may wish to assign computer novices to a helpful partner who can show them the ropes, or take such students to a computer lab and supervise their first letter writing experience. It is useful to provide students with a list of sentences or phrases in the target language that they could use to begin and close their letters, and (if necessary) appropriate and interesting topics.

If your partner class is not familiar with the culture of your students, consider sending an introductory letter to the cooperating teacher and the class, pointing out any cultural differences that may complicate communication (i.e., use of formal vs. informal language in letters, use of first names with strangers, question and answering strategies).

Managing the project
As the project progresses, it helps to have your class discuss, either in small groups or as a whole-class activity, what they are learning. They can share cultural information as well as specific language learned or used. You can also ask students to e-mail you a summary of and reaction to the project up to that point, and then discuss in class any common difficulties or interesting points.

Classes enjoy extra activities to supplement the e-mail exchange: At the midterm point, consider exchanging by regular mail a small package containing photos of your school, postcards of your town and nearby places of interest, maps of the area, for example. A student-produced video, audio tape, or newsletter to be sent to the partner class makes an interesting end-of-term project. Classes might also work together to produce a joint web page.

Conclusion
The extra work involved in careful preparation and constant monitoring more than pays off. Students taking part in successful e-mail exchanges are usually highly motivated to practice and learn on their own. Many of our students have continued their exchanges well after the course ended, perhaps the highest compliment that could be paid to a homework assignment.

Preparing for the Possibilities of DVD: Exploiting Language in Television Commercials

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Introduction
Television commercials are made to be looked at and listened to over and over again. They are rich in all kinds of language as well as in visual content. They would surely be invaluable tools in the language classroom, serving as stimuli for learning activities with which learners can feel actively involved. However, up until now, the use of such short video pieces in the classroom has been severely limited by technology. Unless a teacher is lucky enough to obtain a video-disc of commercials, such material has had to be stored on video tape, from which it is hard to quickly access an item which might be appropriate for a particular moment in the classroom. Specific linguistic aims are often adapted to the commercial rather than the commércial to the aims.

However, with the imminent introduction of recordable DVD, it will soon be possible to have a library of commercials and other short visual resources accessible in the same way as a "library" of magazine pictures.

Thus, commercials could be categorised and catalogued, providing a useful framework for ready access for any learning purpose. In this paper, I propose a method of categorisation which might enable television commercials to be exploited more efficiently.

The main rationale for categorisation, and for use in the classroom, is the fact that a television commercial tends to repeat language again and again in order to emphasise its message. As will be seen, such language can take many forms, and is not necessarily explicit. Purely visual cues, for example, are sometimes even more valuable, as the teacher and learner are able to create and attach their own language.

I conclude by suggesting ways to exploit particular examples. The JALT98 workshop associated with this paper emphasized demonstration and teacher involvement. However, because it is difficult to convey the impact of visual stimuli in written text, such a focus is not possible here. Teachers are encouraged simply to try creating their own ideas based on the frameworks suggested.

A categorisation

In order to begin a tentative categorisation, a selection of about 200 British television commercials spanning a period from the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s was examined. It is possible that further analysis of commercials from another English-speaking country may provide other categories, and of course any teacher will certainly be able to add categories to suit his/her own purposes. However, what follows is surely a basis to build on. Clearly, as one commercial may belong to more than one category, there are various possibilities for exploitation.

There is little attempt here to be statistically accurate, and this is *not* an exhaustive discourse analysis of the language used in commercials. The accuracy is that which would be appropriate for normal classroom use. If a commercial is said to "contain" a certain language item, this may mean that the item either appears as written text, is spoken (or sung), or is a linguistic representation of what is seen, implied, or suggested. For example, saying a commercial contains the word *buy* may mean we hear or read the word *buy*, we see someone buying, we think that buying is going to take place, or (often) that the viewer is being persuaded to buy.

1) *Vocabulary items*

Most commercials would be in this category, with sub-categories, depending on the target vocabulary. Items may be in sets, or single items may be repeated. For example, a soap commercial may contain a set of adjectives such as *clean*, *soft*, or *sparkling*, while a car commercial might contain such items as *powerful* or *sporty*. Sometimes, one adjective is repeated over and over again in different contexts. A beer commercial, for instance, may revolve around the word *smooth*.

Similarly, there are many commercials in which both nouns and verbs appear in semantic clusters (Marzano & Marzano, 1988). Such commercials might contain items such as different family members, different sports, lots of animals, school subjects, etc. Alternatively, a variety of clumsy acts may be performed, or there may a number of small acts which together have a purpose, such as getting ready for a football match. Some doubt has been cast (Tinkham, 1993) as to the wisdom of presenting learners with such clusters. It is suggested that the close relationships might cause more interference than help. However, the empirical studies behind such an assertion have measured the results of strategies which did little more than introduce the items. It is my belief that a strong and vivid context would create links durable enough to overcome any possible confusion.

2) *Grammatical structures*

A creative teacher could discover and exploit many different possible structures within the meaning of a commercial, particularly such features as verb tenses. However, there are many instances of repeated structures which are subtly built into the commercial. They may not be obvious until the student is invited to think more deeply about them, and

it is that thought which may reinforce the acquisition of the structure. Some examples might be:

i) This is the man who...
ii) I want to...
iii) If you did, you would
iv) If you do, you will
v) So (adj.) that... verb
vi) Used to/but now

3) *Functions*
A commercial may quite possibly be placed in both a grammatical, structural category (for example, "If I were you") as well as a functional category ("giving advice"). The very purpose of the commercial itself can usually be expressed in terms of a function (usually persuasion, but occasionally others such as "giving information," "instructing," "informing" and "protesting"). However, most useful are commercials containing different structural examples of the same function. Common examples are "giving advice," "making comparisons," "making excuses," and "working things out." Here, there is a clear distinction between whether the commercial actually uses the language associated with the function or whether the viewer must "think" the function. For example, many commercials simply invite the viewer to compare, without using any explicit language of comparison.

4) *Everyday situations*
Many commercials depict simple, everyday situations such as buying something, making a phone call, and making introductions. Sometimes the situations are repeated, using different language and contrasting strategies.

5) *Narrative and drama*
Most drama is visual, and the learner has to provide the narrative. Occasionally, however, there is a scripted drama with dialogue. The most common genre is the mystery, with associated possibilities of predictive language. Almost as common are surreal, confusing dramas which compel the viewer to predict or suggest what could possibly be being advertised.

6) *Incongruities*
The whole of the commercial may be totally strange. For example, visual elements may be moving upside down or backwards, or the lips of a speaker might be purposely out of sync. It is not easy to exploit such examples practically, as the effect can be overwhelming, but there are possibilities. The most basic is a challenge to describe the incongruities in the commercials.

7) *Idiomatic, colloquial, or "marked" language usage*
Commercials from both television and other media are often considered to be excellent material for teaching idiomatic and colloquial expressions. However, in the selection of television commercials examined, the language used was for the most part extremely clear and straightforward. There were a few which employed extremely colloquial language such as slang, and others which featured regional, extra formal or old-fashioned English. However, such language was generally used in the commercial because it was marked. In other words, the viewer would notice the language because it was different than expected, which is part of what gives this kind of commercial its impact. Such commercials can be successfully exploited, but the approach must be chosen with care, to avoid confusion. Much of such marked language appears in parodies of an existing television style, programme, or even personality, of which the learners certainly, and even the teacher, may not be aware.

8) *Clever language*
Clever, witty, or humorous use of language is very frequent. Slogans would come into this category, as well as jokes and puns. Again, when the language is clever, it is *really* clever, and this is the whole point of the commercial. Usually, the wit is repetitive: not one pun, for example, but a whole commercial full of puns.
Commercials of this type are good choices when the teacher wants to delve more deeply into the language.

9) *Listening*
Of course, most commercials with spoken content can be exploited with the objective of improving listening skills. Occasionally, however, the aural element in a commercial is far stronger than the visual, and the words are to be listened to for content rather than simply effect. Publicly funded campaigns are good examples, though not the only ones. Such commercials can be used for many types of listening exercises, both simple and complex.

10) *Series of commercials*
Often, one company will produce a series of commercials over time, all with a similar theme. Some examples are "Bad luck may be forgotten with a cigar," "Somebody is doing something crazy, so he must drink this beer," "Everything else may be unreliable, but you can rely on this car," and the most famous of all (in the UK): "This beer refreshes the parts other beers cannot reach." Over time, such well-known themes spawn further themes of self-parody, which can carry on for years. If there is enough class time, a number of commercials with the same theme can be used. The most obvious linguistic possibility would be comparison, but once learners understand the theme, they could start to create their own commercials.

11) *Songs*
These might be known or original. Sometimes the song is simply background, but usually it is very much in focus, with very audible and intelligible lyrics. However, there is often a special meaning or effect specific to the commercial. How these songs are used depends on the class, and as they are so "catchy," straightforward singing is a real possibility.

12) *Public spirit messages*
There are many public campaigns. Some examples in the selection were related to drinking/driving, drugs, AIDS awareness, anti-fur, and anti-apartheid issues. These could be exploited for listening skills, but they would also lend themselves, more than any other category, to open discussion and cultural comparisons.

Some examples
Once a teacher develops an eye for such things, nearly every commercial has some potential in the classroom. My purpose is to help the teacher develop such an eye, rather than simply hand over some commercials with ready-made plans. However, here are a few examples of commercials picked more or less at random out of the larger selection, with some guides as to how they could be categorised and used. Each example is written in a format appropriate for a language resource room and is designed for busy teachers looking for good, accessible tools.

1) *Description:* A man describes three cars as they drop on to the floor beside him. Then one car falls through the floor on to the basement below. The man climbs down to the basement, and carries on describing this car. (*Volkswagen* CM)
Categorisation: Vocabulary (car related adjectives). Also Comparison.
Possible use: Class brainstorm for adjectives they might expect in a car commercial. Write these on the board. Watch the commercial without sound. Ask for more adjectives. Watch with sound, and ask what adjectives they actually heard.
Comment: This could be used at all post-beginner levels, the only differences being the type of adjectives suggested at first and the speed with which they hear the adjectives in the end. Also, the technique could be used with many commercials for different products.

2) *Description:* A very long commercial for kitchen appliances. (It is not immediately obvious, however, that kitchen appliances are being advertised). There is no dialogue, except for the company name repeated. A large number of characters dressed in unusual clothes come in and out of a room, and perform a variety of quite mundane

(though inappropriate) actions over and over again. (*Ariston* CM)
Categorisation: Verb formations. Also, vocabulary (clothing, appliances, actions).
Possible use: Have the students describe out loud what is going on. For example: "He is coming down the stairs, she is opening the fridge, he is jumping, she is putting a cat in the fridge" etc. During the second viewing, they can try "she is going to put the cat in the fridge" and then "she has just put the cat in the fridge."
Comment: With a large class, this can become very loud and competitive, with the students learning from each other. Many commercials lend themselves to this sort of choral commentary. If necessary, turn the sound of the commercial off (in this case, a non-English commercial could be used).

3) *Description:* A commercial for an insurance company consists of 13 very short (2-3 sec.) segments, each with a different female, (becoming progressively older) doing something very specific, and saying "I want to be...." For example, in the first segment, a young girl is playing in her mother's dress, saying "I want to be like Mummy." In another, a young woman catches a bouquet at a wedding, saying "I want to be next." (*Prudential* CM)
Categorisation: Narrative, Clever Language, Listening, Structure (I want to be...).
Possible use: Give the students a paper, divided into 13 rows (one row per segment) and 3 columns. Play the commercial without sound. The students, in pairs, try to recall the segments and write down a short description of each in the first column. Repeat as necessary. Then say that each of these females is saying "I want to be...." Ask them to guess what they are saying and write in second column. Then tell them what they are saying, but mixed up. Ask them to match the segment with the utterance, and write in third column. Then play the entire commercial with sound.
Comment: With appropriate adjustments this can be used at many levels. Many commercials lend themselves to this kind of memory play and guessing, but every commercial would require a different plan.

4) *Description:* Any selection of four "series" commercials. A good choice might be the series of *Hamlet* commercials, in which a character always has bad luck, but his or her misery is softened with a cigar.
Categorisation: Drama, Persuasion, Associated Structures for bad luck stories.
Possible use: Divide students into groups of four. Tell them that they are a publicity company with the task of choosing the best possible cigar commercial. Each student in the group is shown one commercial which they adopt as their own (the others do not see it). Then each student describes his or her commercial to the other three, and tries to sell it to them. Finally, the group chooses what it thinks is the best commercial.
Comment: This activity is best suited for students at the intermediate level and above. The shorter the commercials the better, so that the students who are not watching don't lose interest. In practice, the students are happy to describe the commercial, and only the more advanced would actually try to sell it. They quickly realise that the better they describe it the better it sounds, and after the whole group has watched all the commercials, they often change their decision. This process thus provides an opportunity for immediate self evaluation.

Conclusion

I hope that these basic guidelines and examples will serve to hasten the day when commercials and other such short video items will be as easily accessible for any appropriate classroom use as magazine pictures are today. Up to now, television commercials have always been an excellent source of stimulating language, and a class

based around the language in commercials can be a wonderful way to motivate learners. In particular, they are very useful for an approach which values learner autonomy: The messages contained in commercials can be interpreted in many ways, and learners can be allowed to interact with the language in such a way as to support their own learning strategies.

With the advance of technology, and (we hope) practical developments in the hardware for educational purposes, commercials can now be used to support a curriculum—to complement it rather than supplement. They will still engage the learner, and make for variety in the classroom, but the teacher will be able to integrate them far more easily into a cohesive and flexible plan. We need not restrict ourselves to commercials. Instant access to video segments, whether it be television, home video, class recordings, or purpose-made published materials, can transform our language classes.

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Theme Music Presentations: Organising Oral Audio-Visual Student Presentations of Popular Songs

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Theme music course

For most students, listening to music is an enjoyable and motivating activity. For teachers of English, channelling student interest in music into language learning activities promotes enthusiastic participation, productive effort and memorable learning experiences. During the past three years, I have organised a theme music course for undergraduate university students, based on popular English language songs from the 1960s to the 1990s, including folk, pop, rock, reggae, punk, soul and rap music.

Student proficiency in theme music classes has ranged from elementary to advanced, with the majority of students in lower to mid-intermediate levels. Class activities, including listening, reading, discussion, reporting, and presentation, involve students in using English more actively. Songs are selected for their content, particularly for social, cultural or political themes. Some examples of songs used in the course are listed in Appendix 1.

In each class, I distribute a worksheet which contains the song lyrics, with content words deleted for a gap-fill listening comprehension task. The worksheet also includes brief English explanations of potentially difficult vocabulary, and questions for discussion. One song is introduced in each weekly 90-minute class, with students viewing a music video of the song if available, then answering comprehension questions which focus on the visual images and music. Students then listen to an audio recording of the song and complete the gap-fill exercise.

Questions for discussion engage students in analysing the meaning of the song, interpreting the songwriters' opinions, discussing issues and problems related to the song, and giving their opinions. Students discuss worksheet questions in groups of two or three, briefly noting answers or underlining relevant sections of the lyrics. After discussion, groups report their answers and opinions to the class.

THEME MUSIC—PRESENTATION GUIDE

* **Select a song with a message**—social, cultural, political or environmental themes
* **Listen** to the song and read the **lyrics**—see CD cover
* Read background **information** about the musicians & song
* Prepare information about the song:
  # **Songwriter**, group or singer
  # **Song**—where, when & why was it written?
  # **Music style**—rock, pop, folk, jazz, rap, blues, reggae, classical?
  # **Instruments** & sounds
  # **Lyrics**—setting (time & place), story, characters
    - **vocabulary**: explain difficult words in English
    - **theme**: what topics or ideas does the song present?
    - **insights**: what can we learn from the song?
  # **Opinion**—Why did you choose this song?
    - **positive** and **negative** reactions—favourite line, image or words

PRESENTATION—material and style

* Find a **recording** of the song—CD, cassette or video
* Prepare a **worksheet** including:
  + **Brief notes** (NO sentences) about music, lyrics and opinions
  + **Lyrics** of the song + **Vocabulary**—brief explanation in English
  + **Discussion questions** about music, lyrics or opinion
* **Photocopy** the worksheet—one copy for every two students
* In class, hand out notes, play the song & present information
  - **speak naturally** using your notes—**DO NOT** write a speech & read
* **Partners**—present 50% information & opinions
* **Presentation time**—song & information - about 15 minutes
* **Schedule** available next class—choose song (& partner) ASAP

Figure 1. Presentation guide for theme music students

Theme music presentations

At the end of each semester, in small groups or with a partner, students organise oral audio-visual presentations of popular songs. Students find a video or audio recording of their song, and prepare detailed notes about the musicians, music, lyrics, vocabulary, themes, their opinions, and questions for discussion. In class, presenters distribute their notes to other students, play their song, and orally present relevant information and opinions.

The rest of the class is involved in listening, video viewing and reading, with presenters' questions discussed and answered by small groups after each presentation. I generally advise students to plan a 10 to 15 minute presentation, allowing extra time for discussion and listeners' reactions. In an average 90-minute class, it is possible to have between three and five student presentations.

Assisting students to prepare successful presentations requires careful planning, clear guidelines, and teacher demonstration. At least two weeks before student presentations begin, I distribute a detailed presentation guide:

When introducing the presentation guide, I emphasise the need to prepare detailed notes, with relevant information about all topics. Well-prepared notes are the foundation of successful presentations, and should be computer printed if possible, then photocopied for all students. It may be necessary to assist students with the preparation of notes in the first semester,

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checking information and organisation, and discouraging the inclusion of sentences.

After this guide has been introduced, I distribute model presentation notes and demonstrate a theme music presentation. One song which I use for demonstration is *Another day in paradise* by Phil Collins (1989, track 7) which focuses on homeless people. The music video for this song is particularly effective, with monochrome images of homeless people, and statistics about homelessness. Presentation notes for this song are included as Appendix 2.

One week after introducing and demonstrating the music presentation, a schedule is circulated for students to choose a date, then write their names, song titles and musicians. Student presentations usually begin one week later. They are responsible for producing, copying and distributing their notes, using audio or video equipment, and presenting information, opinions and questions.

During the presentations, I assess each group using three equally weighted criteria—content, style, and material. Content assessment is based on the information, vocabulary, opinions and discussion questions included in the presentation. Style assessment focuses on the presenters' use of English, with an emphasis on speaking naturally, not reading a prepared speech. Material assessment is based on the notes distributed to listeners, which should be well organised, and include all topics in the presentation guide (Appendix 1). Listeners are also assessed on their answers to discussion questions, opinions and questions.

After all presentations have been made, students complete a review worksheet, which lists the titles of all the songs presented. In small groups, students identify the musicians and the main themes for each song, from memory and notes distributed by presenters. This worksheet also contains a Music Awards section, with students voting for songs with the best music, and the best lyrics.

Six weeks of class time from the introduction and demonstration of the presentation task to the final review worksheet activity may be taken up, including the 4 weeks required for student presentations. This project provides an effective format for oral presentations, and enables teachers to assess students' speaking and organising skills. Music presentations offer classes an opportunity to enjoy and understand a diverse range of meaningful music, channelling student interest in music into a challenging, communicative English language activity.

I have not referred to any previous research, as this course has been independently designed and has not been significantly influenced by other studies. Although there are some textbooks and articles related to the use of music in EFL teaching, they generally focus on listening activities, in contrast to the content based oral presentation focus of this paper. Kanel (1997), in a paper which focused on listening activities using music, provided an extensive list of references for readers interested in the use of music in EFL teaching.

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Appendix 1: Examples of theme music songs, musicians and themes.

TIME	SONGS	MUSICIANS	THEMES
1960s	The times they are a-changin'	Bob Dylan	Cultural & political change
	The universal soldier	Buffy Sainte-Marie	War & peace
1970s	War	Bob Marley	Racism, African politics
	The last resort	The Eagles	U.S. history, environment
1980s	Russians	Sting	Nationalism, Cold war
	Short memory	Midnight Oil	World history, colonialism
1990s	No son of mine	Genesis	Family conflict, abuse
	Little child	Desirée	Poverty, hunger

Appendix 2: Model presentation notes

PRESENTATION: ANOTHER DAY IN PARADISE

Songwriter & singer: Phil Collins **Album**: But Seriously (1989)
Style: pop/rock **Instruments**: acoustic guitar, keyboards, drums
Setting: city streets, rich countries, present day
Themes: homeless people, other people's reactions, rich & poor contrast
Video: scenes of homeless people, beggars, refugees; homeless statistics—U.S., world
Opinion: powerful music—drums & acoustic guitar, serious themes, empathy with homeless people, stylish video with strong, realistic images

Lyrics:

1. She calls out to the man on the street,
   'Sir, can you help me ?
   It's cold and I've nowhere to sleep
   Is there somewhere you can tell me?'

2. He walks on, doesn't look back
   He pretends he can't hear her
   Starts to whistle as he crosses the street
   Seems embarrassed to be there

**Chorus*
Oh, think twice, 'cause it's another day for you and me in paradise
Oh, think twice, it's another day for you, you and me in paradise
Think about it

3. She calls out to the man on the street
   He can see she's been crying
   She's got blisters on the soles of her feet
   She can't walk but she's trying

* *Repeat chorus*

Oh, no, is there nothing more anybody can do

Oh, oh Lord, there must be something you can say

4. You can tell from the lines on her face
   You can see that she's been there
   Probably been moved on from every place
   'Cause she didn't fit in there
   * *Repeat chorus*

Vocabulary:
pretend (verse 2)—act falsely
whistle(2)—musical blowing
embarrassed (2)—feel ashamed or uncomfortable
sole (3)—bottom of foot
blister (3)—painful bubble of skin, caused by rubbing (e.g., from new shoes)

Discussion questions:
1. What problems does the woman have? (verses 1, 3 and 4)
2. What is the reaction of the man? Why does he react this way? (verse 2)
3. What do you think the singer means by "paradise" (chorus)?
4. How do you react to homeless people? Can we help them? How?

Video comprehension:
1. How many homeless people are in America? In the world?
2. How many people are without adequate shelter?
3. Why do you think there are homeless people?

Outside Taping for Fluency: A Practical System

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Rationale

"One of the biggest obstacles to fluency in a foreign language situation," states Nation (1995, p. 138), "is the lack of opportunity outside the class room to use the foreign language to communicate." This is certainly true for oral communication classes that meet once a week for 90 minutes and especially so for university English majors, for whom some progress in fluency should be expected. Even in class itself, teachers may find time for freer communicative practice quite limited.

Encouraged by Schneider's (1993) work with pair taping, we implemented a system to give students more speaking practice, requiring them to record free conversations outside class and turn the tapes in as weekly homework. Our system necessitates a moderate amount of extra work by the teacher, but the rewards more than repay the additional effort.

Here we describe two procedures for outside taping, examines the benefits of the system, presents student reactions and data, and points out pitfalls to avoid. Our experience may offer a good departure point for interested teachers.

Procedures

Our courses are "Speaking 1" and "Speaking 2," for first and second year English majors at Kinjo Gakuin University. Classes meet once a week, with approximately 20 students in each class (all female, ranging in ability

from lower to upper intermediate). This section explains the outside taping procedures.

Introducing the system

- On the first day of class, students are told that they must tape free conversations outside class and turn the tapes in as homework every week.
- The teacher emphasizes the benefits of outside taping in developing fluency, and reports on the favorable experience of previous years' students.
- The teacher emphasizes that outside taping is a requirement for passing the course, not an option.
- Students are asked to choose taping partners (groups of three also allowed) for the whole year.
- Students are told to bring to the next class two new blank cassette tapes of *precisely* the length the teacher specifies.
- The students must label both tapes and cassette jackets *precisely* as the teacher specifies (see Figure 1).
- Students receive a handout with these and other details that the teacher explains, usually over the first two classes.

Tape players and facilities

Students record on the Sony TCM-939. It is small, light, portable, inexpensive (around 8,000 yen), easy to operate, and records clearly. Our institution has bought several dozen of these recorders. Students pick up a recorder, sign out for it in a notebook, and must return it and sign it back in on the same day.

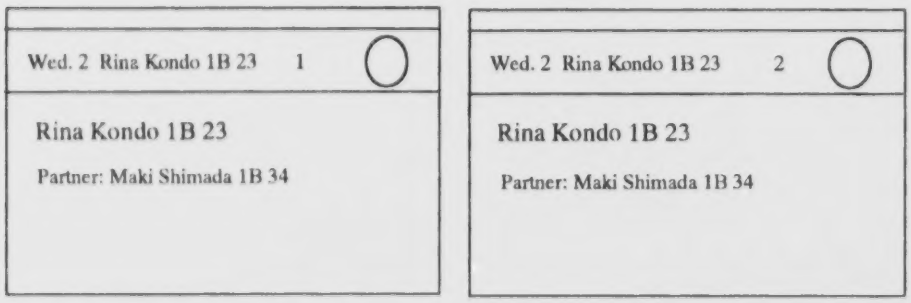
Tapes

Every week, students fill one side of one tape entirely with free conversation in English. Each student has two tapes, one for recording their first and last conversations of the year, and evaluating their progress, and the other for ongoing taping.

Tape 1.

Tape 1, the "Keepsake Tape," contains the first conversations of the year on Side A. The teacher collects and keeps these tapes until sometime toward the end of the academic year, whereupon Tape 1 is returned to each student and they record their last conversations on Side B. The students, having a tape that contains their first and last conversations, compare them and evaluate progress in fluency (see Section 3).

Figure 1. Labeling of cassette jackets (top) and tapes (bottom). Tape 1 (left) is the "Keepsake Tape" and Tape 2 (right) is the Working Tape. Labels on Side B need the same information.


Wed. 2 Rina Kondo 1B 23 1
Rina Kondo 1B 23
Partner: Maki Shimada 1B 34
Wed. 2 Rina Kondo 1B 23 2
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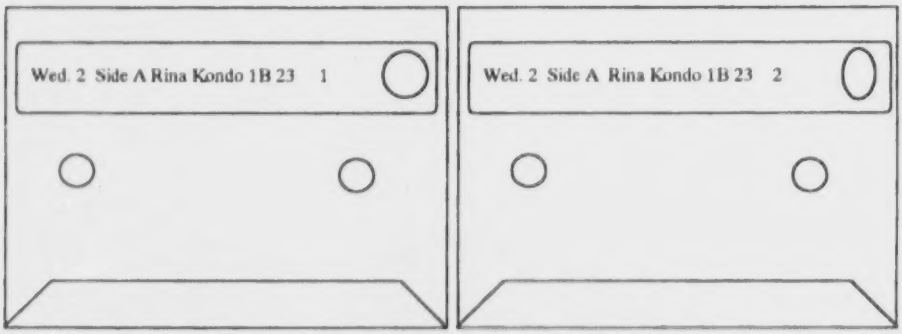

The tape is also a memento or "keepsake" of their progress.

Tape 2.
Tape 2 is the "Working Tape." Except on the few weeks when Tape 1 is used, the Working Tape will be filled up, turned in, and handed back to the students every week.

The weekly routine
A pair of students have two Working Tapes between them. They turn in one of these tapes every week, and tape next week's conversation on the other partner's tape. At the next class, the tapes are exchanged and students record on the returned tape. There should always be a tape for the teacher to audit and another for the partners to record on.

Alternate taping procedures.
We use two taping procedures for our courses, reflecting differences between first and second year students, as well as our individual preferences. In the procedure for the second year students, students must:

- fill up one side of a 60-minute tape every week (30 minutes)
- record three separate conversations (approximately 10 minutes).
- record each conversation on different days, and on days other than the day of the class.
- put pauses between the three conversations by pushing the play button for 5 seconds.
- give names, student numbers and the date at the beginning of each of the three conversations.
- not use Japanese.
- not have long pauses in their conversations.
- not read dialogues or other material.

First-year students follow the same procedure, except that they fill one side of a 46-minute tape (23 minutes), with no specifications regarding the number of conversations or days to record.

Auditing the tapes
Listening to every tape completely would be an unreasonable demand on the teacher, but is unnecessary. In auditing the tapes, the button most often used is fast forward. Spot checks at the beginning, middle, and end of the tape suffice. With a double cassette player, the teacher can audit two tapes simultaneously, fast forwarding both and periodically stopping either to listen to short portions. Auditing the tapes for a class of twenty takes from around 30 minutes (first year students) to 60 minutes (second year students).

Alternate auditing procedures.
Auditing first and second year tapes is somewhat different. For second-year students, the teacher:

- ensures that students have recorded the full 30 minutes, in English, without excessive pauses.
- ensures that three 10-minute conversations have been done, and on separate days (checking names, student numbers, and dates at the beginning of each conversation).
- reaches the beginning of the second and third conversations by pressing play and fast forward (the tape automatically stops at the five second pauses).
- ensures that the full 30 minutes have been recorded (there should be no blank portion at the end of the tape).

Auditing first year tapes is similar, but the tape is shorter, and the separate, 10-minute conversations are not required. The teacher simply fast forwards to the end with periodic spot checks.

Evaluating the tapes
We do not evaluate accuracy or mastery of language, which are evaluated elsewhere. We see the value of taping as developing fluency, and insist only on the requirements in Section 2.4.1.

Alternate evaluation methods.
For second year students, each finished tape is assigned points which ultimately figure into students' final grade. Lapses in following the requirements in *Alternate Taping Procedures* entail reductions in points. A note on a small index card inserted into the cassette case informs students how many points they received, the reason for any lost points, a brief note of the topics, and perhaps some praise, encouragement, or personal comments.

For first-year students, evaluation is done on a "Done/Not done" basis. When tapes are not turned in, it is clear on the roster. All finished tapes receive a *Post-It* on the outside of the cassette case, which may contain an injunction to do the tape again (common when the system first gets underway, very rare afterward), a warning or reminder (for minor infractions like slight use of Japanese), a suggestion about English use, praise, encouragement, or a reaction to items of conversation.

Student evaluation.
Towards the end of the academic year we return Tape 1, the "Keepsake Tape." Students record their last two conversations. They then compare their first and last conversations (sides A and B) using word count per minute, and give impressions about their fluency progress (see Section 3).

Additional procedures and materials
An additional procedure for second year students is to erase Working Tapes using a Sony BE-9H cassette eraser, before returning them. This is done to make locating the five second pauses between conversations more easy when auditing. First year students receive supplementary material containing conversational strategies and a list of suggested topics.

Results of outside taping
In the Self-Evaluation (introduced above) second-year students did a word per minute count of their first and last conversations, and rated partner taping on ease, usefulness, and interest using a 5-point Likert scale:

1 Not at all 2 A little 3 So-so
4 Yes 5 Very

Students also wrote free comments on their improvement and on partner taping in general.

Table 1 shows the results in one class. Words per minute, a rough estimate of fluency, ranged from 18.00 to 120.00 wpm at the beginning of the year (mean wpm of 60.76), and at the end of the year from 21.00 to 184.00 wpm (mean wpm of 87.96). Fluency improvement (which could be attributed to factors other than taping) thus ranged from 3.00 to 64.00 wpm, with a mean improvement of 27.20 wpm.

According to Richards (1987, p. 165), speaking for native speakers can be categorized as slow (under 130 wpm), moderately slow (130-160), average (160-190), and moderately fast (190-220). Therefore, though students in this class improved, speaking remained mostly slow. However, two students (136 wpm) improved to the moderately slow range, and two others (186 wpm) improved to average, or very near moderately fast.

Students thought taping was only a little easy (2.04), rather useful (3.76), and moderately interesting (3.16). Free comments in some ways gave a more informative picture. A few typical comments are presented here unedited:

- *I think this taping is one of the better ways of English speaking. I can speak English more fluently than before.*
- *It is hard to do this homework. Now I compared to a first tape and a final tape. I think my speaking skill improved.*
- *I think it's good for students to do this partner taping. My first time, it was very difficult for me to talk in English. But little by little, I could talk more, be interested and be happy in this taping. If I had not had this chance, partner taping, I would have not talked in English so much over the year.*

Table 1. Partner taping self-evaluation results

n=25	Range	Min.	Max.	Median	Mean	Std. Dev.
First Week	102.00	18.00	120.00	56.00	60.76	31.1278
Last Week	163.00	21.00	184.00	86.00	87.96	45.9733
Difference	61.00	3.00	64.00	26.00	27.20	18.0208
Easy?	2.00	1.00	3.00	2.00	2.04	0.7895
Useful?	3.00	2.00	5.00	4.00	3.76	0.9256
Interesting?	4.00	1.00	5.00	3.00	3.16	1.0279

As part of a different, institution-wide student evaluation, first-year students were asked whether outside taping improved their speaking ability. Out of 19 students, 7 answered "Yes" (36.8%), 6 "Yes, somewhat" (31.6%), 2 "Can't say" (10.5%), 4 "Not really" (21.1%), and 0 "No." Thus 68.4% thought outside taping improved their ability

Outside taping has become a vital component of our courses, and several benefits are clear:

- *Students develop real fluency and ease in using English.*
- *Students nearly always stay in English while taping, as they are conscious of a listener.*
- *Students get hours of extra practice and a concrete record of their progress.*
- *Students gain a sense of responsibility for their progress beyond the classroom.*
- *Teachers gain a better sense of who the students are and what their language problems may be.*
- *Most students enjoy the taping and recognize its value.*
- *The spirit of the school is transformed as hallways and lobbies fill up with students chatting in English.*

Avoiding pitfalls

Students generally tape enthusiastically, but during the first few weeks, many students try to get away with as little work as possible. The effectiveness of the system is compromised (and headaches in auditing tapes greatly increased) if the teacher is not firm on the following points:

- *Insist that students buy the required length of cassette.* Refuse tapes of any other length.
- *Insist on correct labeling.* Refuse mislabeled tapes.
- *Insist that students record the required length.* If students record less, make them do it again. Once students know the teacher is serious, this problem virtually disappears.
- *Insist that students rewind the tape to the beginning.*
- *Reprimand L1 use, long pauses, or reading into the tape.*

Minor items to insist on are giving names, student numbers, and dates on the tape, and (for second-year students) putting the 5-second pause between conversations. Warnings or reductions in points early on usually take care of lapses here.

An additional problem is that signing out for recorders is an "honor system"; several machines have in fact disappeared. It would be better to have staff from whom students need to personally sign out for the machines. Alternately, a Language Laboratory could itself be used for taping (Schneider 1993), or students required to buy their own small recorders.

The possibility of deception is present in this system. We cannot be sure that some students are not taping a single conversation and then using it over and over again—an easily executed technical maneuver. The insistence on putting the date in the tape, and (for second-year students) the erasing of the tapes by the teacher make it harder, but not impossible, for students to "cheat" in this way. While it is possible that such tactics have gotten by us, our impression is that it is rare or nonexistent. First, we can see and hear most of our students making tapes in the lounge and hallways, and secondly, routine auditing of the tapes shows that students mention topical and aseasonal things (soccer games, weather, news events) that show that the conversations were recent.

Conclusion

In this paper we have described the procedures and benefits of outside taping, as well as pitfalls which can be avoided by vigilance, especially early on. Some extra work is required of the teacher, but it is well repaid by students' enriched learning, increased autonomy, and improved ability. Much quantitative work remains to be done on the efficacy of taping. We hope to pursue such studies in the future, and hope other teachers implementing similar systems will do so as well.

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Content and Creation: Student-generated Textbooks

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Rationale

For any instructor, the task of choosing an appropriate course textbook can be worrisome. Even after a text is selected, there is no guarantee it will engender interest in the classroom or be regarded by students as relevant to their needs. Indeed, with economics as the determining variable for

most commercially produced textbooks, ease of production inevitably emphasises uniformity over culture-specific and, more importantly, individual needs. Such textbooks are, as Little and Dam (1998, p.8) point out, essentially external to the learner. They are imposed from without. If students are to play a central role in devising their learning plans, as researchers such as Breen (1984, p. 58) and Nunan (1995, p. 134) have argued materials production must become a key concern.

Approach

With these considerations in mind, we decided to collaborate in devising an approach that would respond to such concerns in a practical manner. We sought to involve learners in the materials-production process, and to tap into their initiative and creativity. We chose press articles as the principal source of subject matter, in the belief that exploiting current media resources would aid students' vocabulary acquisition and foster their development of communicative competence. Moreover, this would, in our view, enhance their understanding of not only the issues prevalent in current media discourse, but also the cultural values that underlie them.

The approach involved the implementation of a thematically-based "content and creation" project, in which students became responsible for creating their own media issues text. Each text thus reflected individual effort and awareness, both in a linguistic and issues-oriented sense. More importantly, this approach allowed students to show their own interest and motivation.

Project participants

The project involved 200 college students at two universities in Japan. Mixed levels were the norm, and although all were English classes, some were inter-departmental in nature. Classes were 90 minutes in length and were held once a week for approximately 30 weeks. Class sizes varied from 7 to 44.

Procedure

A handout (in language appropriate to student levels) was distributed to each class, and a detailed explanation/discussion session was held at the beginning of the semester. The handout instructed students to choose media articles (related to specified themes) of interest to themselves, but on topics that they would want to share with others. Students were supplied with a list of potential media sources, such as newspapers, magazines, simplified-English publications, and Internet news sources. They were then directed to:

- Buy a notebook (A4 size, at least 60 pages).
- Each week, find and photocopy an appropriate article related to the weekly theme. Sample themes included: music, sports, foreign travel, travel in Japan, notorious people, and modern trends and styles.
- Staple the article on to a left-hand page in their notebooks.
- On the right-hand page, write down a part of speech (as used in the article), phrases, or idioms, and a definition and of at least 15 words. Then write three new sentences, each containing a new lexical item.
- Below the definitions, write a short personal reaction to the article (or a summary of at least a few sentences).
- Study the article, understand it, and develop an opinion about some aspect of it. Be prepared to discuss the article in class with classmates.
- Write a short discussion reaction in their notebooks (at the end of the class).

Students were assigned to sit in small groups, facing each other in circles. They would then take turns presenting their articles. Basic level classes or students might just read their personal reactions and answer some simple questions; higher levels were encouraged to do more. Thus, the method was modified to suit different levels: With lower-level classes or students, there might be more concentration on vocabulary work; however, higher level students were

challenged to engage in more extended activities, such as:

- Giving verbal summaries
- Challenging opinions presented in the articles
- Offering further information or detailed personal reactions on the topics
- Organizing extended debates or discussions on the articles or on the general theme

These media-based assignments would constitute the only required homework for the course. During the year, student-generated texts would slowly take shape, increasing in size. As they catered to the interests of the students, they served as personal mementos in ways that commercial texts couldn't. Additionally, we were able to include a useful element of flexibility by modifying themes to incorporate topical news stories (e.g., the life and death of Princess Diana).

Supplementary activities

We used this approach to generate a whole host of spin-off activities, including role plays, debates and discussions. Also, as a means of reinforcing new vocabulary, we distributed word lists which we had compiled by using selected words from the students' vocabulary lists. We then tested the students on lexical items which had arisen during the semester.

The teacher's role

As the emphasis was placed upon the students, we inevitably assumed a supporting role, walking around from group to group, and sometimes joining in discussions. In lower-level classes, we encouraged students to begin by asking each other the reasons for their choice of article, and, when appropriate, to speculate as to how a particular news story might unfold.

Core principles

This "content and creation" approach offers a number of advantages, based on the following principles:

1. The focus of the lesson is, in part, negotiated—the teacher sets the parameters (i.e., the general themes) and the students customize it for their own purposes.
2. Students and teachers are joint decision-makers. The program is essentially "content-based" since it seeks to broaden the range of topics which students feel capable of addressing. This approach, in turn, serves to increase students' ability to process written information.
3. Student talking time is maximized. All participants have a significant amount of class time to talk about their work and to interact communicatively with others.
4. Group dynamics are enhanced. The fact that students work in groups throughout the course helps to produce a relaxed learning environment.
5. While speaking is the main classroom focus, all four skills are addressed in the preparation of the materials and in follow-up activities.

Caveats

The success of this type of activity depends, to be sure, upon the availability of usable media resources. It also requires the willingness of the participating students to take the necessary time to select appropriate articles.

Conclusion

Despite these potential risks, we believe that further exploration of this approach should lead to both the refinement of follow-up activities and even greater levels of learner autonomy. We envisage, for example, students choosing the themes and determining the basic text layout. From a strictly practical perspective, the greatest advantage is perhaps the high degree of flexibility in using student-generated textbooks. This enables the instructor to monitor larger classes while attending to individual interests and needs. It also allows students to put their interests first in learning the foreign language.

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Preparing Students for the Electronic World

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In recent years, American campuses have placed a growing amount of emphasis on computer networks. At the University of Illinois (which hosted 3,038 foreign students in the 1995/96 academic year (Institute of International Education, 1997)), students are encouraged to register for classes using the campus network (Harris, 1997). Computers are the new gateway to administrative information, class schedules, student loan information, and information about campus events. The ubiquity of computers as an access point for campus resources can be best seen in university libraries. Most libraries have exchanged their card catalogs for online catalogs; magazine articles are indexed and stored on networked CD-ROMS; the Internet is used to connect students to resources shared by university libraries around the country. This requires students to rely on computers not only to gather information for their research projects, but also to learn of events and to get information from the administration.

Daily course work is another area where students are increasingly required to use computers. Computer interaction is already becoming an integral part of most academic majors (Rosen, Sears, & Weil, 1987). According to the 1996 Campus Computing Survey, 27% of the 660 respondents state that helping faculty to integrate computer technology into instruction is the most important information technology (IT) issue at their institution. Other IT issues include providing adequate user support (24%), expanding the campus network (18%), and replacing old hardware and software (17%) (Green, 1997). Each of these IT issues suggests that college students will need to use computers in more classes and disciplines in the future.

The use of computers as a communication medium is currently gaining a strong foothold in American college classes. Whereas a student wishing to avoid computers could have previously got by with the occasional use of word processing, the computer has, in recent years, become the primary means of communication and information gathering within many courses and disciplines. Green provides the following indicators of this trend (Green, 1997):

- 67% of all undergraduates have access to e-mail and the Internet, while 79% of campuses have a World Wide Web (WWW) presence;
- 25% of college classes used electronic mail in some capacity in 1996, compared to only 8% in 1994;
- WWW-based resources were used in 9% of all college courses, up from 6% in 1995.

In addition, almost one third of the 660 campuses in the 1996 survey reported having formal plans to use the Internet and WWW in instruction. As higher education continues to focus on how to use their vast computer networks in the classroom, this number can but increase.

What implications do these changes in academia have for a foreign student entering the computerised world of American higher

education? One aspect to consider is a student's information competency. Just as students need to learn how and when to apply certain grammatical rules of language, they also need to become familiar with the technical and cultural usage of computers as tools for information exchange and research. In other words, students need to know the difference between a WWW browser and an online catalog; they need to understand the difference between finding information on the Internet and finding information on a database; they also need to learn when it is appropriate to send e-mail to their professors.

On the one hand, the problem of information competency seems clear if we consider academic libraries, the most computerised of American campus institutions. Newly arrived international students identify the use of computer databases and online catalogs as one of the major differences between libraries in their home countries and those in the United States. Allen's 1993 survey of international students found, for example, that 61% described computer database searching as a novel experience, whereas 50% said they were unaccustomed to online library catalogs (Allen, 1993). On the other hand, although academic libraries spend considerable time educating native speakers on database searching and accessing online catalogs, native speakers are not burdened with other problems such as language barriers and lack of cultural awareness of library research in American academia (Bilal, 1989). Now that the use of computers for daily academic routines has spread from libraries to the curriculum, international students face increased cultural and technical obstacles in communicating and gathering information.

As international students encounter communication barriers, so may their level of anxiety toward computers increase. Recent studies show that computer anxiety does not disappear as computer experience becomes more universal; these studies also indicate that the best way to reduce computer anxiety is to make students' early experiences as stress free as possible (Gos, 1996). If this is not done, computer anxiety may well place international students at a significant academic disadvantage. From this perspective, teaching the use of computers in language programs will become similar to telephone skills, textual analysis, or thesaurus usage.

If students have access to computers and the Internet, it is not difficult to create a course that emulates and uses many of the same technologies and resources encountered on American campuses. For example, one can access over 175 library catalogs through the United States' Library of Congress' WWW site; the U.S. Department of Education's WWW site offers free searches of the ERIC database; course materials and handouts can be published on a class homepage; and students can be required to communicate via e-mail. A course that integrates the use of computers for research and communication within a language program should minimally cover the following topics or units: electronic mail, locating and analysing information on the world wide web, library research, and database searching. These units can also be integrated into other classes. For example, electronic mail fits well within the structure of a writing course. At the same time, research over the Internet could be taught in an academic writing course for students who are ready to write research papers. While helping to develop language skills, such units can also give students a basic understanding of how e-mail is used in campus communication; how to find and analyze information on the Internet; how to search a library catalog and read a bibliographic record; and how to search an academic database. Just as language instruction helps students negotiate various grammatical choices and social situations, instruction in electronic communication assists students to negotiate the computerised campus and discover what resources are available through campus networks.

Electronic mail

As soon as students are comfortable using computers for word processing, they will be

ready to use electronic mail. The use of e-mail is similar to word processing except the print command is replaced by "send." Once students have their accounts, they can begin sending and receiving e-mail. At this point teachers can also start sending class announcements to students, and suggest that students ask questions and turn in assignments via e-mail. To provide students with other opportunities to communicate in English, e-mail pen-pals from other classes, schools, or countries should be provided (see Appendix 1). When students are comfortable sending e-mail to their classroom peers, an assigned pen-pal allows them to initiate an ongoing dialogue in English and become more accustomed to using electronic mail.

Once students are comfortable with e-mail, they can use a listserver (a program which forwards e-mail to participants of a group whenever e-mail is sent to the group). With literally thousands of listserver groups covering almost every subject, there are also listserver groups for students studying English (see Appendix 1). A teacher can also create their own class forum by using an e-mail program's address book function. This allows the teacher to send announcements easily, and students to "talk" with the whole class at once when they have questions or comments.

When explaining the use of e-mail to students, it is important to explain unique cultural and linguistic aspects of the medium. For example, students should be informed that e-mail and all forms of electronic communication are not private, so care must be taken not to disclose information or opinions that might be later regretted. Further, it should be noted that e-mail is often written in a more casual manner than letters (Krol & Ferguson, 1995): Punctuation and capitalization are often omitted, for example. Once students have completed a unit on electronic mail, they should be comfortable communicating with their peers, teacher, and others electronically.

The World Wide Web

Teaching students how to use the WWW as a source of information is a two-step process. First, one must teach students some technical aspects such as how to use the browser, and how the files located on the Internet are transferred to their computers. Second, students need to learn how to find information and analyse it. Although computer systems and software applications can vary, the main goal is to teach students how to successfully navigate their way around without getting lost in a flood of information. If students don't feel in control of what they are viewing, they will become frustrated. Part of putting students in control depends on their understanding the structure of the Internet. As this can be difficult to explain, teachers may wish to use articles or books written in the student's L1 and provide an English glossary.

Once students have achieved a basic familiarity with the Internet, they are ready to learn basic search techniques. Here, it is helpful to use both Internet search engines and keyword search techniques, as well as directories with their large subject indexes of the Internet. Some of the larger Internet search engines include *Infoseek* and *Excite* (see Appendix 1). Each search engine offers a similar interface, so students can easily move from one to the next. Searching these databases offers students a good chance to use their language skills by selecting terms that will yield good results. Students should also be encouraged to perform the same search on different search engines, so that they can learn how each site leads to differing search results according to its index building techniques and search algorithms. Teaching students to use an Internet directory also builds language skills by requiring students to choose which subject areas to consult in order to find a particular topic. In this case, using narrow topics enables students to get further into the structure of the directory. An example assignment that includes both directories and search engines is an information scavenger hunt. In this assignment, students are given a list of questions to answer and are required

to use the Internet to find the answers. Questions can be on any topic, ranging from the population of Kathmandu to sites that include the poetry of Emily Dickinson. The purpose of the scavenger is simply to get students to use their reading and analytical skills to create search strategies and locate specific information.

Library research and database searching

Library research and database searching skills are essential to all students on American campuses. Luckily for teachers preparing students for study in the United States, there are many online library catalogs available. The Library of Congress site is perhaps the best place on the Internet to access many of these catalogs (see Appendix 1). At this site, students can search English language catalogs from all around the world, including large research library collections. The principal target skills in searching an online catalog revolve around the main access points that these catalogs offer: author, title, and subject. Although each interface that students encounter may differ in form, they all share those common access points. Once students are familiar with finding known items and reading bibliographic information, they can move to complex search strategies with Boolean operators. These involve the use of coordinating conjunctions such as "and" and "or" in refining the search.

The transition from using an online card catalog to searching a database is not difficult. One of the most widely used databases in academic libraries is the ERIC database. This comes free of charge on the WWW and provides an excellent resource for research or simple practice. The database is available at several sites on the Internet; each has a different search interface with various search options. It is best to look at each one and choose the most suitable for a particular learning task (see Appendix 1). For such database searches, it is also important to guide students to consider the inclusion of plurals, the use of synonymous terms and the possibilities with of Boolean operations, as non-native speakers of English generally tend to underuse such variations (DiMartino, Ferns, & Swacker, 1995).

Conclusion

Although there are many technical considerations in preparing students for computers on American campus life, one must keep in mind the larger context. Students need to be aware that the environment they are entering relies heavily on electronic communication and research. By empowering them with knowledge of what the cultural norms of computing are, training them in the possibilities for communication and information retrieval, and by raising their confidence to take advantage of these opportunities, language teachers will enable their students to communicate more effectively. This in turn will greatly enhance the students' chances of success in American academia.

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Appendix 1
Electronic resources and how to access them

Electronic mail and listservers

a. There are numerous WWW sites that allow people to find electronic pen-pals. You can find them by searching in any of the search engines.
b. An excellent group of listservers for finding partner e-mail classes is the Intercultural E-mail Classroom Connections. For more information send questions to <cdr@stolaf.edu> or look at the following WWW site: [http://www.stolaf.edu/network/ieccc].
c. The EFL/ESL Student Lists offer several topical lists for students to join. This is an excellent way for students to practice English and learn to use a listserver. To find out how your students can join send e-mail to Thomas Robb at <trobb@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp>.

Internet search engines and directories:

Excite: [http://www.excite.com]
Infoseek: [http://www.infoseek.com]
Lycos: [http://www.lycos.com]
Hotbot: [http://www.hotbot.com]
Library of Congress (access to over 175 library catalogs):
[http://lcweb.loc.gov/z3950/]
Educational Resources Information Center
For a list of all the access points to the ERIC databases available on the Internet go to the following WWW site:
[http://www.aspensys.com/eric/searchdb.html]

Activities for the Independent Learner

Steve Petrucione, Osaka Institute of Technology
Stephen M. Ryan, Eichi (Sapientia) University

The core of our presentation at JALT98 was a handout outlining 67 prototypes of language learning activities which learners can engage in independently, i.e., without having recourse to a teacher. Several of the activities were demonstrated and the general principles involved were discussed. Because of space limitations, we have included detailed descriptions of only three of the activities here, which are indicative of the range of potential tasks. Copies of the full handout are available upon request from the authors.

Rationale
The following six reasons were given for the need to train our learners in independent learning. They are:

- Our learners have limited time and cover a limited amount of language with a teacher.
- Our learners will need English in the future but will probably have to study without a teacher.

- Learners must contribute to learning for real learning to take place.
- Great importance is now being attached to independent learning, as shown by the vitality of JALT's Learner Development SIG.
- Learners have different needs, interests, personalities and motivation for learning.
- Many learners are already learning independently, as a survey of our own learners showed.

Activity One: Let's Talk About It (Speaking and Listening)

Objective
To demonstrate to learners that talking together about a mutually relevant topic leads to fluency on the topic.

Procedure
The participants were divided into groups of three. They were then instructed to prepare three sentences on the topic "How I Came to Sonic City." When all three were ready, one began talking. After she was finished her group mates asked her a total of three questions.

She answered the questions and the procedure was continued until all three said how they came to Sonic City and answered three related questions. The participants were then given some samples of learners' work and commented on the similarities in content with what they had just said in their groups.

Suggestions and options
This kind of activity can be used for almost any topic, from the most mundane such as today's lunch, to technical in which a learner talks about his field of study. The amount of preparation can be left to the learner. Some may prefer to write everything out, others to make only notes. The length can be left up to the learners to decide. A short talk could be one sentence, while a long one might be 20 sentences. The learners might decide to memorize it; it is also permissible to look at notes while talking. However, it is better if the learners don't read, as that is boring and often hard to follow.

Benefits
The learners are often interested in this activity because they are talking about things of interest and proximity to themselves. They therefore can remember the vocabulary items used. It is felt that what David Little calls "learning from the inside out" (personal communication) takes place, since the materials come from inside the learners'minds. Other obvious benefits are that no textbook or other materials are necessary.

Activity Two: In the News (Reading, Writing, Speaking)

Objectives
1. To show learners that they don't need questions from a book or teacher for reading comprehension.
2. To demonstrate to learners that making questions can be as much a comprehension exercise as answering them.

Procedure
The participants were divided into pairs. They were each given a different newspaper article to read, and were told they could use their dictionaries to aid understanding. The articles were between 120-150 words and had been picked out by learners in a university English conversation class. After they had read their articles and mastered the vocabulary, they were asked to write three comprehension questions for their partner. When both had written their questions, they switched articles, read the new article and answered the questions their partner had prepared.

Suggestions and options
The teacher can bring in two articles that she thinks of interest to her learners first, and, after that, let the learners bring in their own. The learners can be asked to volunteer to

bring in articles and in a class of 22 or more learners, experience suggests that two or three will contribute. Of course, magazine articles and items from the Internet are welcome.

Benefits
Since the learners choose the articles, they are of interest to them. Also, writing questions for their partner to answer involves them directly and leads to concentration and motivation. The learners feel a need to write fair and comprehensible questions so their partner will understand and be able to complete the activity successfully. Writing a question entails knowing the answer, which broadens comprehension. An illustration of this is where one learner stated an interesting fact about an article, asked a question, and also demanded proof backing up the answer.

Activity 3: Listen To The News (Listening)

Objectives
1. To show learners that they can often predict vocabulary if they know the title of something.
2. To show that prediction is a valuable tool in developing listening skills.

Procedure
The participants were told the title of a news broadcast from NHK TV and asked to guess five vocabulary items they thought would be used. They were instructed to write the five items down, and the teacher put some items on the board that were chosen from the participants' lists.

The news broadcast, about 40 seconds, was played twice. The participants listened and checked the items they had predicted that were actually used. It is a good idea to ask several learners some easy questions about the content of the broadcast, so they can see they have picked up information incidentally while performing the task.

Suggestions and options
This kind of activity is best used with a short, coherent story. The contents of the broadcast should be something the learners are interested in. With university students, a news story that they feel directly affects them can be used with success. One about the opening of the ski season in Hokkaido was received enthusiastically. The learners should be told that any vocabulary item is acceptable, even proper names. Also the learners should be told that even if they didn't predict any of the vocabulary used, it is still a worthwhile listening activity, because they gain valuable exposure to English while listening for the predicted words. Synonyms and near-synonyms to the actual words used, predicted by the learners, can be pointed out to them for encouragement. Top-down processing, which leads to better understanding, is stimulated as a result of predicting.

Benefits
This activity shows learners that they already know a lot about a topic from the beginning, and encourages top down processing. The contents of the news programs can be taped directly from NHK bilingual new thus being familiar ones to our learners, which makes them more interesting and easier to understand. They should be updated often, as current topics encourage learner motivation.

Conclusion
Sixty-seven activities were presented in the handout. They included using a variety of materials; graded readers, videos, diaries, textbooks, television and radio, computers, native speakers, newspapers, pen friends, magazines, and songs for learning independently. The activities presented demonstrated that learners individually, in pairs, or in groups can practice and improve their language skills in an enjoyable and motivating way, without a textbook or teacher. The learning strategies involved in these tasks encourage learners to use their ingenuity and develop materials from things in their daily life, and, maybe best of all, their own brains.

Learner Autonomy in Japanese Classrooms: An Exchange of Views

Leni Dam, David Little, Richard Smith and Haruko Katsura

Introduction

At the end of each presentation by Leni Dam and David Little at JALT98 (including their joint opening plenary: See Dam and Little, this volume), participants were invited to give anonymous feedback in the form of written comments and/or questions (in either English or Japanese). This feedback formed the basis for a "Special Exchange Session" moderated by Haruko Katsura and Richard Smith on the final day of the conference.

A question from one participant was: "What exactly is a 'Special Exchange Session'?" David and Leni had posed the same question when first asked to take part. They were told: "This is a new, experimental format...allowing participants to converse with/'get to know' main speakers in a relatively informal manner." This article attempts to mirror the interactive nature of the Special Exchange Session, as originally conceived and as realized in practice. Thus, just as they did at the session itself, David and Leni offer below their interpretations of, and overall responses to, the written feedback received; representative questions and comments are reproduced verbatim (set off from the text in boxes), in order for the voices of conference participants also to be heard.

Feedback and responses are divided under two main headings: (a) Theoretical and cultural considerations (addressed by David Little), and (b) Practical concerns (addressed by Leni Dam). In both sections specific reference is made to the implementation and development of learner autonomy in the Japanese context.

By foregrounding and presenting responses to some of the concerns of conference participants, we hope to help motivate further cycles of reflection, teacher-research and discussion among teachers working in the Japanese context.

Theoretical and cultural considerations (David Little)

Learner autonomy and learning strategies

> *"What role does the development of cognitive, metacognitive and language study strategies play in the autonomy development process? When, if at all, should strategies be taught?* [University teacher]

In his plenary lecture Mark Clarke defined learning as "change through time." If we accept this definition, our role as teachers is to create a framework within which our learners can change. If in addition we believe in the central importance of learner autonomy, our role is also to help our learners to give conscious shape and direction to that change. This means finding ways of enabling them to develop the metacognitive skills they need if they are effectively to plan, manage, monitor and evaluate their learning.

At the same time, I should like to caution against putting too much trust in what has come to be called "strategy training," for four reasons:

1. There is no evidence that the most successful communicators are those who use the widest range of strategies (this point is made by McDonough, 1995).
2. Any strategy can be used either consciously or unconsciously. It is thus possible that strategy training simply makes learners conscious of things they were already doing without being aware of it.
3. There are limits beyond which we do not have introspective access to our mental processes: We must be cautious about

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saying what we are doing on the basis of what we think we are doing.

4. Forms of strategy training that resemble drill and practice have nothing whatsoever to do with the development of learner autonomy.

Learner autonomy and Japanese culture

> * *I felt that the concept of learner autonomy is basically argued from a Western Prejudice of Learning. The Asian (Eastern) concept of learning, in my opinion, is quite different. What do you think about the cultural aspect as a factor in autonomous learning?* [Junior college/University teacher] [Note: Many other participants provided similar feedback]

> * [Translated from Japanese] *I'm currently practising getting feedback ... from my students via writing (in Japanese) after each lesson. The reason I started doing this is that Japanese students are not accustomed to expressing their opinions about the lesson to the teacher verbally. After [David Little's] presentation, one of the participants claimed that Japanese people "think less," but I don't believe that's the case. I think students are educated in such a way that they don't find any meaning in expressing their opinions within this teacher-centred culture. So I've started the practice of getting feedback since April, and by now students have begun to express their opinions. Now I'm thinking of asking them to write their comments in English.* [University teacher]

Human beings all belong to the same biological species and thus have certain fundamental attributes and experiences in common. It is inconceivable, for example, that the phenomenon of consciousness is subject to cultural variation, though the way in which individuals interpret it may be. In my view, another human universal is the autonomy of the individual as a "self-producing" organism (Maturana and Varela, 1992). In contexts of formal learning, where a central concern is (or is usually declared to be) the growth of critical self-awareness, we exercise and develop our autonomy, or "produce ourselves," through the reflective processes that are usually labelled metacognition. According to this line of argument, although human societies and cultures differ from one another in ways we are familiar with, we should not be asking ourselves: "Is learner autonomy appropriate to Japan?," since to do so implies that Japanese learners have no capacity for critically aware "self-production." We should rather ask: "What forms can learner autonomy appropriately take when it develops within the Japanese cultural tradition?"

Questions about the cultural appropriateness of learner autonomy often seem to presuppose that cultures are monolithic and unchanging. But they are not; they are constantly evolving, and the new perceptions that effective education gives rise to are among the most important factors shaping this evolution. If education is about critical enquiry, it is also about questioning received values, institutions, social norms, and so on, including traditional notions about how teachers should teach and learners learn. To the extent that it is worth anything, education always runs the risk of setting us at odds with the society and culture of which we are part.

> * *Secondary level pupils in Japan ... have very deeply ingrained notions of what study, class, and teaching entail (learner participation is not part of their concept of education or learning).* [Junior/Senior high school teacher].
> * *Japanese, who learn under a very Confucian, vertical system, are quite unused to taking any autonomy at all in class.* [University teacher]

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At this conference, there has been frequent mention of "the typical Japanese learner." But the characteristics attributed to this learner (and specified in some of the comments and questions reproduced in this article) are the same characteristics I have heard teachers attribute to "typical learners" *in Ireland, the United Kingdom, France,* Germany, Spain, Mexico, Italy and many other places. This stereotypical learner is not the product of any one particular culture, but of the teacher-centred pedagogies that seem to be fundamental to educational traditions around the world.

Practical concerns (Leni Dam)

* *How do you get the reluctant learners to do some work? What do you do with the "lazy" students?* [Senior high school teacher]
* *Given the perception by many people that Japanese learners are "shy" or "passive," what practical ways are there in which we can foster learner autonomy with such "passive," "shy" learners?* [Junior college teacher]
* *I have to deal with...learners with very little motivation—so little that I think that if they could really do what* ***they*** *want, they wouldn't even turn up for class. How do you think I can give these students more autonomy?* [University teacher]

Many of the comments/questions we received touch upon problems that do not necessarily have to do only with the implementation of learner autonomy, but which are problems generally experienced by (language) teachers. The questions and comments about lack of motivation and reluctant learners are good examples. I can tell you that Danish teachers say the same of their learners. I would claim that in many cases learners have learned to be lazy and reluctant during 12–15 years of education. In other words, it's not their fault.

Why, then, are learners lazy or reluctant to learn? Perhaps, because teachers don't make use of what learners bring into the classroom? Because we ask learners to do things that are not authentic or relevant to them? Because we ask our learners to do things without explaining *why* we want them done?

* *Our students here have spent years in the most structured, teacher-centred of contexts ... Using language has played no real role. My question: How to respect/honour/value what the learners bring to the classroom when what they bring is inimical to real communication in a foreign language?* [University teacher]

In general, but especially with regard to learner autonomy, it is essential that we get learners involved in their own learning. A starting point could be to ask them about their previous experiences—to show respect for what they bring to the classroom. We should ask them what they *do* know, what they *can* do and what they're good at. Let's take "communication" as an example. Japanese learners certainly have knowledge of communication, but many of the questions and comments suggest that this knowledge isn't being made use of. Textbook dialogues, for example, are not authentic and do not ask learners to behave authentically. One suggestion is to use pictures of people talking in various situations around which learners can build their own dialogues. The teacher can then work from the learners' dialogues.

* *How to start introducing student autonomy with classes who don't want to be in the English classroom, and believe that they do not need to participate* ***in any way****?* [Teaching context unspecified]
* *How to get the students motivated and* ***used to*** *a different style of learning when education in Japan is considered to be "how much one has memorized"?* [Junior college/ Language school teacher]
* *How do you deal with classes who* ***want*** *the teacher to be a dictator?* [University teacher]

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It is essential, whenever we ask our learners to do things we find important, that we are prepared to explain to them *why* we want these things done—and the way we want them done. Examples: doing homework, work in groups, writing diaries. If and when the teacher specifies his/her views and intentions, it is then easier for the learners to get involved and to respond with their own ideas. The final decisions for the organization of the learning environment might then be made in co-operation and negotiation between teacher and learners—a prerequisite for learner involvement.

Teachers can be more worried than learners about the change of teacher role in the classroom, the change of role when moving from a teacher-directed teaching environment to a potentially learner-centred and -directed learning environment. Again it is my experience that this worry is shared by most teachers around the world who want to change their practice. The problem has two sides: "How is it done?" and "Will the learners accept the change?" Here the same principles apply as to all teaching and learning. You have to start from what you know already, taking small steps and making changes appropriate to your own environment. First and foremost, bring your ideas, your problems, and concerns into the classroom to share with your learners in formats of negotiation and evaluation. In this way, the process will be a shared concern and thus an authentic step towards learner autonomy. Secondly, a good idea will be to share the process with colleagues. Last but not least, you have to accept the fact that learning to "let go" takes a long time—even longer than it takes for learners to "take hold"!

Conclusion

At the Special Exchange Session itself, after the above responses, participants were asked what issues they would like to continue to see addressed in the remaining time. Groups were formed around the following concerns:

1. How teachers can take the first steps towards enhancing learner autonomy;
2. Sharing experiences for teachers already involved in developing learner autonomy;
3. Learner autonomy in content classes;
4. The use of L1 in awareness-raising.

These, then, appear to be areas of remaining concern which could repay further discussion and investigation by teacher-researchers in the Japanese context. (Some additional areas are suggested in the Appendix.)

All groups became so involved in their discussions that the time was extended and only a short period of feedback followed. However, there were some concluding words of encouragement at the Session itself, with which we also conclude this article:

I feel that self-esteem—for teachers and learners alike—is the pre-requisite for moving into autonomy. On both sides, it is a matter of taking the steps that you feel comfortable and confident about. At the same time, it is of the utmost importance that these steps are respected accepted, and supported by others. (Leni Dam)

You can't develop autonomous learners without autonomous teachers. By this I mean that teaching, like learning, must come from within, and that as teachers we should cultivate the same reflective, critical stance that we want to encourage in our learners. Individual human beings are no less subject to change than human cultures; change is one of the signs that we are alive. Pursuit of the ideal of learner and teacher autonomy means submitting ourselves to a process of constant self-questioning and self-renewal. This is not always easy or comfortable, but it is intellectually challenging and immensely satisfying. (David Little)

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Appendix: Further questions for teacher-research and discussion among teachers in Japan

For reasons of space, only a sample of the written feedback received from conference participants could be reproduced above, and responses—although based on *all* of the feedback received—could only be of a general nature. Below we therefore present some more comments and questions from participants, believing that, while these have mostly been addressed in a general way above, they might form a good basis for more detailed discussion and research by teachers interested in learner autonomy in the Japanese context:

1. What can be done about students' being "bored with listening to material presented by other students—at the end of group projects etc.?" [Senior high school teacher]

2. If it is true that "when students are mixed up with strangers ... they become very nervous to express something" and that "When students make groups with their favourite friends, some groups are all lazy students and they don't do anything." [Senior high school teacher], how can groups be formed effectively?

3. Are Japanese students "reluctant to peer criticise but more peer-consolation oriented?" [Junior college teacher] If so, what are the implications for practice?

4. Is it true that "if [students] could really do what **they** want, they wouldn't even turn up for class?" [University teacher] If so, how can this problem be addressed?

5. How can teachers respond to the following challenge?: There is "huge peer pressure on pupils to conform, [which is] reinforced by demands to conform outside the classroom. Stating a preference or making a choice can be very risky for them socially." [Junior/senior high school teacher]

6. What are some "possible approaches to managing 'learning diaries'" in a situation where a teacher sees "12 classes of 50 students—once a week for 12 weeks?" [University teacher]

7. "How can you have carry-over when the class meets once a week or once every other week?" [Senior high school teacher]

8. How can Japanese teachers of English and students be encouraged to speak in English when (a) "Our English is not so good;" and (b) "the students always want to speak Japanese to us (because they know we understand)?" [(Japanese) Senior high school teacher]

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Entrapped by Understanding—The Use of the First Language (Bahasa Malaysia) in the Teaching of English

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本稿は言語授業における母国語使用の問題について考察する。マレーシアの中等教育に携わる教師とその学生を対象にインタビューを行い，この問題における経験，反応，見解を検討した。この調査は真のコミュニケーションの必要性はもとより誤解についても明らかにした。結論として，地域の教育風土に合った指導技術を考慮に入れた明確な教授法開発の必要性を論じる。

In this paper, I explore the issue of the use of L1 in the language classroom. I examine the experiences, reactions and views of both English teachers and students in Malaysian secondary schools by means of interviews. My research points out that there are misconceptions as well as true communication needs involved. I conclude that there is a real necessity for a clearly defined methodological base to be developed by local expertise.

In the course of doing fieldwork for my Ph.D. on Malaysian secondary schools, I encountered extensive use of Bahasa Malaysia in the teaching of English, especially amongst teachers of English in rural schools and in less able classes in urban schools. Like all teacher educators, I experienced considerable uneasiness observing teachers teach English using the translation method. This prompted me to investigate the issues behind this phenomena.

In this paper, I will begin by relating various teachers' initial experiences and views which highlight some of the issues concerning the use of Bahasa Malaysia in the language classroom. Then, I will examine the issues from the viewpoint of the students. I will go on to examine some of the underlying reasons as to why this phenomenon occurs in the Malaysian classroom[1]. It is hoped that the insights from this paper will enable teachers and teacher educators to rethink the issue of the use of first language in the teaching of English.

Initial experiences

In the course of interviewing teachers as to why they used the L1 in the teaching of L2, I found that most teachers began by relating their first experiences of teaching the English Language.

- *My first experience of teaching English, in fact I tried my best, when I got my first class, my first lesson, 100 per cent English, whether they understand me or not. In fact, I was trying to go out of the class for recess, they just sit down and keep quiet and smiling at me. Then I asked, "Do you understand?"*

- *I was shocked when they keep quiet. So I said, "Faham atau tidak" (Do you understand or not?). They said, "Tidak faham" (We don't understand). That's what they said. So after that incident, then only I realise that 100% English in class is impossible, due to their problems in vocab.*

- *I tried not to utter one Malay word. I speak for the whole period but finally I gave them something to write, just a few lines. They told me, "Teacher, what did you say. I didn't understand any word." It was a waste of 40 minutes.*

- *Tomorrow, you will see, when I go into class, the students just keep quiet, heads down. It was my mistake as well because the first few days, you tend to be very strict and then you want everybody to speak English. No Malay word. Not even a single Malay word in class and these people become "takut" (afraid) and afraid to speak English. So they keep quiet. Even the good students, the girls. Some of the girls, they can speak English. They refuse to speak English. And now I have to use different strategies.*

- *Most of the time I have to translate English to Malay, Malay to English because otherwise they don't know anything. I have to translate. Actually I know it is wrong but what to do, I don't have the choice I guess. I really had to go down to their level and use very simple English. I had even to use B.M. You know we are taught not to use mother tongue in explanation. But I find that I have to.*

It appears that most of the language teachers began their career with the aspirations of using English to teach English. However, rude awakenings awaited as they struggled to teach English in rural schools. The discovery that the students did not understand them when they tried to teach English through English caused "reality shock" (Veenman, 1984)—that is, the dissolution of ideals in the face of reality which can often cause a change in attitudes and behavior. The teachers' helplessness in the situation made them turn to the use of Bahasa Malaysia, but this use seems to leave a sense of guilt because their ELT training says it is wrong to use the L1 in the teaching of English. Nevertheless, despite that feeling, most of them continue to use the L1 to teach English.

My observations of a number of teachers indicate that the use of L1 can vary from as much as 10% to 90% of the lesson, depending on the type of school and the socio-economic status of the community. Such a high proportion of use is bound to send alarm signals especially in the light of current theories about language teaching and learning. Concern would naturally focus on how this would disadvantage the language learner. Although this is a legitimate concern, one should also investigate and try to understand why is it teachers do what they do. Unless we understand, and uncover the hidden theories or beliefs in use, we will always be prescribing what teachers should do, rather than understanding the situation and working at feasible means of addressing the issue, together with the teachers.

Areas where Bahasa Malaysia is used

The data gathered indicates that teachers have various reasons for the use of the L1 in the classroom. These, in my view, can be broadly classified into three categories: explanations, class management and motivation.

Explanations

To explain vocabulary

- *Vocabulary, they give us a blank look, so we know they don't understand. They don't understand after explaining. They can't find a suitable word to understand. So we have to revert to Bahasa.*

- *Only the weak class. That also certain words, you need to explain to them. You can't explain in English. You have to change the language.*

- *Especially, vocabulary words...I give them the Bahasa Malaysia words and finish off the thing.*

To explain grammar rules

- *Help them to understand my explanation in the class. If I explain in English, they will absolutely not understand. I have tried last year.*

- *Why is the answer like this and why this one is not the way like it is? They ask me like that. So I explain in Malay. Then they will ask me why. So I said is the way the Englishman speak.*

- *Say the book say grammar—what are the uses of conjunction, before, what. I just translate from the book, direct from the book. Do translation. To facilitate students' understanding*

- *I use B.M. just to make them understand.*

- *Sometimes you expect them to understand what you say. But I'll have to repeat many times to make them understand. Sometimes I have to repeat in Malay. They will ask you in Malay...They want to make sure.*

- *I don't speak English to them. I speak in Bahasa because when I speak in English, I don't think they understand. Also one or two they understand, like "Open your books." That they understand. But speak in English, I don't think they understand.*

These teachers find that the L1 is useful in helping students understand the vocabulary of L2 and to know the rules of L2 usage. Research by Lai and Luk (1996) also indicates a similar pattern of use amongst primary school teachers in Hong Kong. Although this can be a useful strategy, one needs to raise the question as to whether these teachers observe the distinctions between equivalence of form, semantic equivalence and pragmatic features (Atkinson, 1987, p. 246). Failure to do so, Atkinson warns, may lead to over-simplification and word for word translations which could be crude and inaccurate.

Class Management

To give instructions

- *Instructions, here, they are very slow in hearing. You tell them once, they cannot. English is a alien language to them. They are not quick to respond. So I tell them twice in English and then in B.M. defeats the purpose lah but then I get my work done, that way.*

- *They will ask you in Malay, for example, if I ask O.K., "Can you please take out your book, your exercise book?" They will ask you in Malay, "Keluarkan buku cik gu." To save time.*

- *Sometimes, time constrains. So sometimes you have to. You are running out of time. You are going too slow. You can't stretch the lesson...there is a lot more to cover... I give them B.M. words and finish off the thing.*

- *The staff uses very little English outside the classroom. They want the students to understand quickly. They speak in Bahasa Malaysia so that the students will understand quickly*[2].

To scold students

- *Scold them in English, half the words they don't understand. It doesn't have the "oomph." So I have to revert to Bahasa. Nowadays, when I am scolding...I stick to Bahasa.*

The use of L1 in this category seems to focus on the use of L1 in class management mainly as a time saving factor. Is the use of L1 in this case a device merely to make life easier for the teacher ? Or is it, as Pennington (1995) says, a means to compensate for their ineffective teaching strategies?

Motivation

To prevent students from losing interest

- *Sometimes you explain for five minutes, you make them lose interest. They want to know quick, you know. You can't wait for them to give the right word.*

To meet students' needs

- *I ask them whether they want me to try and teach 100 per cent English, 80% English, or 50/50 and they said 50/50. That's the only way, but the way you teach them, even though you are teaching 50% English, 50% Bahasa Malaysia.*

- *Although, the class was quite good, quite clever but for English, they were waiting for me to translate for them. To facilitate responses from students*

- *If I use English only], I will not be able to get a response from them. They will keep silent. Keep quiet. Just me talking in the class in English. Will stare at you, staring at you. And if I ask them in English to what the exercise I wanted them to do, they don't know.*

- *If I don't mention any Malay word, it would be a waste of my voice. Nothing, there'll be nothing from them. They will just sit or sleep. They would be very sleepy because they don't understand anything. So I resort to Malay.*

The data in this section appears to justify the use of L1 as motivating students through various means. It seems that extended explanations in L2 concerning rules of grammar or vocabulary will result in students losing interest as it will take them too long to understand. The use of L1 is also seen as a strategy to facilitate student-teacher communication. Further, teachers seem to use the justification that they are meeting students' needs as it is a learner preferred strategy.

It appears from the data described, that the teachers have some clearly defined strategies and valid reasons for their use of L1 in the English language classroom. However, the data needs closer re-examination, as I believe there is more to it than meets the eye.

The students' point of view

What then are the viewpoints of the students with regard to this issue?[3] There is a variety of views ranging from students who want the teachers to use L1 in the English language classroom so as to enable them to "understand" what is being taught in class, to those who feel the teacher should put in more effort in making the students use English in the classroom.

Learners who prefer the use of L1

- *If it is possible, please translate into Bahasa Malaysia, things we find it difficult to understand.*

- *The teacher uses more B.M. because we not understand. If he uses English, so to help us he uses B.M.*

Here many teachers translate. They are afraid that the students do not understand. The teachers speaks in English, then the teacher speaks in B.M. They want to help the students to understand.

Learners who prefer the use of L2

- *I like if my teacher teach English lesson in class use English. Maybe I can't understand what he is talking about but I want to try to understand.*

- *Instead of encouraging us, force to use the language. Teachers just encourage us but it is better if they force us.*

- *We prefer the teacher to use English, so it will be easier for us to learn English words. The teacher translates for us if it is difficult to understand, it is also good. We get to study the English word and understand the meaning at the same time.*

The data indicates that there is support for the teachers' contention that the use of L1 is a learner preferred strategy. Although there are students who think otherwise, these generally form the minority. Out of the 12 students interviewed, nine wanted the teacher to use the L1, whilst only three felt the teacher should use more English. Has the overuse of L1 in the classroom led learners to believe that they will not understand any L2 unless it has been translated? Johnson (1995) notes that learner's perception of language classrooms will influence the patterns of interaction in the class. Hence, although there is evidence to indicate it is a learner preferred strategy, one should treat such evidence with caution.

Entrapped by understanding

It seems that the variations of the word "understand" are a recurrent feature in the conversations with regard to why teachers and students feel they have to use Bahasa Malaysia in the teaching of English. The general view is that the use of the L1 will facilitate understanding and if the students understood they would learn. "Understanding" is viewed as a major key to mastering the English language by both teachers and students. What remains unclear is what sort of understanding of the English language would be promoted by the use of Bahasa Malaysia and how that would help students learn the language.

What is cause for alarm is that this *understanding* appears to be the dominant perception or "theory in use" as to how a language is learnt. On the surface level, it appears to support Krashen's (1985) view that comprehensible input is needed to enable a learner to learn a language. However, the emphasis in this case appears to be on short-term and immediate comprehension of input rather than comprehensible input.

Further, two other vital aspects of learning a language, meaningful production and negotiation of meaning, appear to be receiving very much less attention from the teachers. In Canada, it is often stressed that immersion learners need opportunities to produce comprehensible output in order to learn the L2. Such opportunities can allow students to draw on their lexical, phonological and structural resources to negotiate meaning which is a vital aspect of arriving at clarity and precision in communication.

By paying little or no attention to these aspects of language learning, it appears that the teachers have inadvertedly denied their students opportunities of mastering the L2.

The other issue that arises is whether teachers treat the English language as a subject with a content base rather than acts of communication. The fact that the teachers feel students need to be given *extended explanations of grammar rules and vocabulary* could point to these being seen as the *content* of the English Language. This could explain why *understanding* is seen as crucial as this perception of learning is often related to content-based subjects. The teachers' perception of understanding as the major key to language learning raises a related question with regard to teacher education programmes. Have such programmes concentrated too much on the

methodology of teaching English and not given teachers a deeper understanding of the psychology of language learning or even sociolingusitics especially in the area of codeswitching?

The need to communicate
The other question to raise is how much understanding has got to do with the need of these teachers to feel they are communicating with their students. Any teacher or student would testify to the fact that one of the most frustrating aspects of teaching and learning of a second language is the lack of meaningful communication when only the L2 is used in the class. Is the use of Bahasa Malaysia an attempt on the part of the teacher to promote some meaningful form of communication with the students to build student-teacher rapport? Is this not a legitimate need? And how do we then address this need?

The fear of silence
Another issue connected to this perception of understanding could be the teacher's fear of silence. The transcripts of lessons I analysed showed that the average wait time in EFL lessons was on average 2 seconds long. The reasons given ranged from having to cover the syllabus in a specified time, to a fear that a longer wait time would lead to a slower paced in lesson which then might lead to boredom and disruption in the classroom. In my view, the discomfort teachers feel with regard to silence, may cause teachers to jump in and fill the silences with translations in the L1 of what has been taught. Learners of the L2 on the other hand may need longer periods of thinking time to respond to the questions raised. The failure of teachers to understand the anxiety and tension on the part of the students in learning a second language may contribute to a situation where silence is interpreted as a *failure to understand*, which can only be resolved by resorting to the L1.

Images of a successful teacher
There are other deep-seated beliefs about effective teaching which can cause this fear of silence. Educators may believe that a good teacher is one who should be able to get responses from the class quickly and moreover, does not remain quiet but imparts his/her knowledge to the students constantly. The teacher's self-image of what a good and effective teacher is, may affect his/her ability to deal with silences in the classroom. The result of this is more teacher talk and less student talk and possibly the use of the L1 by the instructor to fill in the gaps of silence

Language and cultural identity
My classroom observations and transcripts of lessons indicate that teachers who shared the same L1 as the learners used far more Bahasa Malaysia in the lesson in linguistically homogenous communities of L1. As one of the students said,

- *In the English lesson, the teacher explains and we do the exercise. If it is a Chinese teacher, she would use more English to explain. If it's a Malay teacher, she would use more Malay.*

Do teachers and students who share the same L1 experience some kind of cultural, social or identity barrier when they use L2 to teach and communicate with staff and students? Data from teachers teaching in rural schools where there is more or less a single linguistically and racially homogenous community seem to indicate a sense of *awkwardness* in using L2 to communicate.

- *Right, now when I'm teaching, when I am speaking English with them I feel awkward because I'm a Malay, they are Malays. When I'm speaking to them English, something you know is a problem to them, I feel awkward and feeling that, feeling of what I should say, that is not an*

appropriate thing to do. That's what I feel when I spoke to other Malay teachers who are teaching English.

- *...And so I encourage them to speak English to me. They sometime hard for them to speak English to me because both are Malays, so I think that's a problem because I am a Malay and they are Malays. So that's what you call as weird, awkward...*

The data raises the question whether language teachers face a kind of *Language Schizophrenia* when they teach English because by birth they represent their own native language and culture but by profession they represent a foreign culture with its attendant patterns of behaviour. Antier (1976) believes that "the teacher of English almost sheds his (L1) personality during the four or five hours a day he is called to perform in front of his audience" (1976, p. 53). Hence there is a danger that the teachers' insistence on using *English only* can lead to them being labelled "western", "proud" or "trying to show off their superiority", and may isolate them linguistically in an environment where the majority have a very limited command of the English language. Literature on language, culture and identity point to the fact that language can be a powerful inclusion or exclusion force. With very few support systems to turn to, the English Language teacher (who is often a novice) is left with a difficult balancing act where students and colleagues are concerned. (See case studies of Salak South Secondary school and Sejati Secondary School in Pillay, 1995.)

Whilst acknowledging there is an issue of culture and identity, one should explore ways of turning the issue around the teachers' understanding of this conflict could aid students in their language learning efforts. Is there place for negotiation with learners with regard to rules for the use of L1? How can the teacher set in place strategies that can help wean the learners from a dependence on translation so that translation becomes an aid rather than the focus of the lesson?

A conspiracy of silence?

Why is it that despite evidence of the widespread use of L1 in the teaching of L2, EFL/ESL methodology books on the whole have paid very little attention to how the use of L1 could facilitate the learning of L2? Why do teachers feel defensive or have a sense of guilt when found using the L1 in the classroom? Why does the ELT community in this country not explore or develop strategies whereby L1 could be used more effectively to teach L2 learners?

Phillipson (1992) argues that this lack of attention can be traced back to the conference of ELT experts at Makerere University in Uganda in 1961, which laid out the tenets which have become the official and largely unchallenged doctrine underlying much ELT work. The tenets are:

> English is best taught monolingually; the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker; the earlier English is taught, the better the results, the more English is taught,the better the results, if other languages are used too much, standards of English will drop. (1992, p. 185)

Phillipson goes on to add that although these tenets have been challenged by research, they are seen as natural and common sense and continue to exert considerable influenceover ELT specialists. In my view, part of the problem is that it suits the ELT experts (who come mainly from the Western world) to maintain the status quo of English only classrooms, out of vested interests. The ELT world can be divided into the Centre, i.e., countries where English is the core language, and countries at the periphery, where English is a second or foreign language. [4] Expertise is still being

exported from the centre to the periphery so much so that ELT has become a multibillion dollar business whose activities are coordinated and often implemented by agencies like the British Council and the United States Information Agency which have government backing. As Medgyes says

> it is a huge industry regulated by strict laws of economy, interested in selling universally acceptable packages and as such unable to respond to local needs. Further, ELT experts who come mainly from the Western countries, generally do not have any knowledge of local languages and as such have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo, that is, English only classrooms. (Medgyes, 1994, p. 64)

I do not wish to indulge in "Centre bashing" because the Centre cannot be expected, when ELT is run like a business, to cater to individual needs. It is we who are at the periphery, who need to take matters into our own hands and start addressing issues like these. If we believe that the use of L1 can help our learners of English, then we must start working out an appropriate methodology. Sheer determination is not enough since one must have the political will as well as economic resources to do that. But if ever ELT in Malaysia is to come of age, we must start by defining our problems and our solutions to them.

A role for the use of L1

Recent research findings reveal that the use of "English only" in the EFL/ESL classroom has negative effects on learners whose L1 is not English. Auerbach (1995) reports of bilingual learners in the US who were completely lost and found it a waste of time when their tutors insisted on the use of English only. Klassen (1987) reports that ESL classes were virtually inaccessible to the Latinos from lower income groups without the use of L1 literacy.

Auerbach (1995) also reports monolingual teachers experienced enormous frustration at their inability to "breakthrough" in their ESL classes and at being forced to reduce lesson content to the most elementary, childlike uses of the language. Skutnabb-Kangas (1979) argues that insistence on "English-Only" in the classroom may result in slower acquisition of English, a focus on childlike and disempowering approaches to language instruction.

Another effect of a monolingual approach is often that students suffer severe consequences in terms of self-esteem and self-confidence. According to Auerbach (1995), there is a sense of powerlessness as learners are not only excluded from participation in the class but their knowledge, life experience, and language resources are excluded from classroom discourse. Auerbach comments:

> prohibiting the use of the native language within the context of EFL/ESL instruction may impede language acquisition precisely because it mirrors disempowering relations. (Auerbach, 1993, p. 16)

Hence, it appears that insistence on the use of English only may completely preclude participation and progress on the part of the learners.

On the other hand, when L1 is used (either for initial literacy or as a bridge to EFL/ESL), teachers report quite different results. Some teachers and experts claim that not only is language shock alleviated by the use of the L1, but progress in EFL/ESL is faster as the bilingual classroom allows for the transition from L1 to L2 in a safe setting.

Brewster's (1996) research findings indicated that the use of L1 or L2 in the classroom by teachers depended on the task type and aim. Teachers could use L2 for tasks that were easy to perform, e.g., giving routine instructions, praise and giving activity instructions. They found it

difficult to use L2 for tasks such as disciplining, running tests, giving meanings of words. Tasks which the teachers found difficult or impossible to perform include explaining grammar rules and chatting informally to students. These findings are similar to a survey done by Lai and Luk (1996) amongst students on teaching practice in Hong Kong.

In my view, ELT Teacher Education courses need to address this issue since there are thousands of teachers who are faced with this problem of balancing the need to be a *model* English Language speaker, with the desire to keep channels of communication open. The fact that ELT methodology books and courses on the whole ignore this issue leaves the teacher in a methodological vacuum. ELT teachers need to be given constructive help, rather than be made to "feel guilty" or be defensive when "caught" using the L1 in the classroom.

Future directions

We need also to rethink the idea of a *universally acceptable* ELT methodology, and start defining a methodology that is sensitive to local cultural constraints which teachers face in practice. All too often, native language teachers in ELT seem to dictate to the non-native instructors the way things should be taught or the ideology to be followed. It is time that the Periphery breaks itself from this mould of dependency on the Center and starts defining an ELT methodology which is appropriate for its own local context (Holliday, 1994). Who is in a better position to decide how and when the L1 should and could be used effectively in the ESL classroom—the native or the non-native teachers? (Medgyes, 1994)

If projections are to be believed, then Graddol's (1997, p. 11) assertion that in the 21st century "those who speak English alongside other languages will outnumber the first language speakers and, increasingly, will decide the global future of the language" may well dictate the shape of things to come in the future.

There needs to be more extensive research into teachers' use of L1 in the L2 classroom. We need to understand teachers' practices rather than theorize. This will involve extensive research into classrooms which will then enable us to understand why teachers used the L1 at particular points. This, in turn, will help us not only to draw up a detailed framework of practice but also to help develop alternative strategies for teachers to use. Furthermore, ELT teacher education has to acknowledge that ELT teachers are going to use the L1 in the teaching of English despite all our attempts to prevent it. Rather than act like the ostrich that buries its head in the sand and pretends that the problem does not exist, we need to be more pro-active in the matter. We must start thinking of ways to incorporate some forms of discussion and debate of the issue in our training programmes, so that, teachers will have a more informed view of the issue. We need to clarify and develop practical strategies that will enable teachers to minimise the use of L1 in the classroom. We also need to rethink the design of our language improvement programmes for teachers so that we can give teachers increased confidence in the use of the L2 in the classroom. Wright and Bolitho (1993) say that a linguistically confident and aware teacher is in a much stronger position to compensate for shortcomings in the curriculum design than one who is not.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have examined the use of L1 in teaching English from the viewpoints of the teachers and students. I have shown through the use of interview data that both parties have their reasons for the use of L1 in the L2 classroom. The analysis of the data shows that there are misconceptions as well as genuine communication needs involved in the issue. I would like to conclude by arguing that if there is to be a place for the use of L1 in the classroom, it needs to have a clearly defined

methodological base, which has to be developed by local expertise.

Notes

1. The data used in this paper comes from interviews with teachers who were teaching in rural schools. Of the six "voices" you hear, two have taught for 7 years, three for less than 3 years and one is a temporary teacher.
2. The asterisked comments have been translated from Bahasa Malaysia into English.
3. The data in this section is taken from small-group interviews with a total of twelve students.
4. The terms "centre" and "periphery" were first used by Galtung (1971).

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言語学習動機づけの診断的分析

Diagnostic Analysis of Motivational Factors in ESL

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In the current study, I empirically examine through a questionnaire the Language Learning Motivation Model that I proposed at the JALT97 conference. For that model, I constructed a process of motivation in which intrinsic motive leads to more concrete language learning motivation under the influence of various personal and social factors. This model was based on a literature review of motivational studies in psychology and applied linguistics. I also examined the possibility for a pedagogical application of the model to the process of language learning. However, just knowing the theoretical framework of motivation is insufficient for applying it to real educational contexts. It is also necessary to confirm how questions of motivation affect each learner. For that purpose, in this study, each factor in the language learning motivational model is measured, and a diagnostic scale of language learning motivation that can clarify the motivational patterns of the learners is constructed.

1. 序論

文部省の提唱する「新しい学力観」のもとに自ら学ぶ意欲が強調されて以来，英語教育の分野において，動機づけに関する関心は高まりを見せている。一方，応用言語学及び心理学の分野においては，動機づけに関して様々な理論的枠組みが作られ，動機づけの特性やその学習に及ぼす影響が研究されてきた。それらの研究は非常に多岐にわたり，動機づけの持つ多様な側面が明らかにされてきている。

しかしながら，教育的有用性を考えると，こういった様々な理論を知っているだけでは不十分であり，実際に生徒の動機がどのような状態であるのかということを知る必要が出てくる。その上で初めて，何が生徒の動機を失わせ，学習を阻害しているのか，どうしたら生徒の動機を高めることができるのかをそれらの理論に基づいて考えることができる。すなわち，そのような理論的見地にもとづいた，動機づけの測定尺度の作成が望まれるのである。

そこで，本研究では第1に応用言語学と心理学における動機づけの測定尺度を概観し，より包括的な言語学習動機づけの測定尺度を作成することを目的とした。これらの測定尺度は，それぞれの研究者独自の理論的枠組みから別々に作られたものであり，測定される要因相互の関係も明らかでなく，互いに重なる部分も多いため，言語学習の観点から相互に比較，分析し，統合を試みた。

また，第2に先に開発した言語学習動機づけ尺度を用いて，学習者の動機づけの診断的な分析を試みる。具体的には質問項目を要因ごとにカテゴリーに分け，その平均から学習者の言語学習動機づけプロフィールを作成する。そして，さらに，診断の結果をよりわかりやすくするため，クラスター分析の手法を用いて，学習者の言語学習動機づけのパターンを探り，その類型化を試みる。

2. 言語学習動機づけ尺度の開発

言語学習動機づけ尺度を開発するにあたって

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は，学習者の動機づけを包括的にとらえる目的から，長沼(1997)による言語学習動機づけモデルに基づいて，モデルに示されたそれぞれの要因を測定する尺度を集めた。また，その他にも，言語学習に関連すると思われる動機づけの尺度を集めた。しかしながら，それぞれの研究者が何をもって動機づけとするかに片寄りがあり，それらを同一のレベルで分析することは無理があると考え，言語学習のプロセスを想定し，動機そのものをたずねる項目，動機づけに影響を及ぼす要因に関する項目，動機の強さを測る項目，実際の動機づけられた行動に関する項目，英語の能力に関する項目の大きく 5 つの観点から項目を分類，整理した。なお，動機そのものを尋ねる項目は価値観，感情，態度を尋ねる項目と言語学習特有の動機を尋ねる項目に分け，影響を及ぼす要因については個人的要因と学習状況，

過去の学習経験に関わる要因を尋ねる項目に分けた。その際，他の質問紙と重複する内容をもつ質問紙は分析の対象から外された(言語学習動機づけモデルについての詳細は，長沼(1998)を参照のこと)。

対象者：大学生 409 名
質問紙：Ely (1986)，Konishi (1990)，Yoshitomi (1990)，高梨(1991)，Koizumi and Matsuo (1993) の英語学習に関する動機づけの質問紙，Pintrich and De Groot (1990)の自己効力感の測定尺度，Harter (1982)の Perceived Competence Scale Children，桜井(1993)の有能感，有能欲求，自己決定感，自己決定欲求尺度，桜井・高野(1985)の内発的—外発的動機づけ測定尺度，速水(1991)の達成目標の測定尺度，Tremblay and Gardner(1995)の動機づけの測定尺度，Vallerand (1992)の Academic Motivation Scale，岡島(1988)の親和性動機測定尺度，堀野 (1987)の達成関連動機の測定尺度，MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997)の自己評定による第二言語の習熟度測定尺度をもとに，重複する質問項目などを省き，言語学習に適するように項目を書き換えた上で，合計 289 項目からなる質問紙を作成した。
分析　：回答はそれぞれの観点ごとに因子分析にかけられ，最終的に 140 項目，32 のカテゴリーからなる言語学習動機づけ尺度が作成された(資料 1)。

3. 言語学習動機づけの類型化
対象者：大学生 1270 名 (性別，学年の内訳は以下に示す)
質問紙：言語学習動機づけ尺度 (上述)
分析　：学習者を対象にクラスター分析を行い，最終的に大きく 5 つのクラスターに分類した。クラスター分析とは似た性質をもつ学習者を大きなグループにまとめていく分析手法であり，言語学習動機づけカテゴリー(資料 1)の得点により学習者動機づけのパターンを類型化した(図 1)。図は 14 のクラスターにまとまった段階から以降のものである。それぞれのクラスターの特徴はカテゴリーの得点を比べることにより分析された。なお，クラスターA および C はそれぞれ 2 つの下位のクラスターから構成されていることがわかる。5 つのクラスターの人数比をみると，B，E が若干少ない他はさほど差は見られなかった。

クラスターA は友好型であり，自発的に英語に取り組んでおり，英語の学習そのものに興味を覚える学習型と，学習というよりも英語文化と交わることに興味を覚える統合型にわかれる。クラスターB は学習そのものにかならずしも興味を覚えていないという点では統合型と似ているが，実際に使えるようになることを目標としている実用型といえる。クラスターC は興味型であるが，漠然とした興味はあるが仕方なくやっているという気持ちもあり，個人タイプの競争・独立型と，グループタイプの協調・依存型に分かれる。クラスターD は必然型であり，興味はあまりなく，状況から仕方が無くやっているという気持ちが強い。さらに，クラスターE となると仕方なくやろうという気持ちもなくなり，英語をやる必要性を感じていない無関心型となる。個々のクラスターのより詳しい特徴については以下にまとめて示す。B，C，D は動機づけに影響を及ぼす要因である，各々の言語学習動機づけカテゴリー(資料 1)の下位項目についての，T は全体的な動機づけの状態を示す，カテゴリー F，G，H についての説明である。

性別×学年

	1年	2年	3年	4年	合計
男子	143	239	199	75	657
女子	177	226	131	60	602
合計	320	487	332	135	1270

注)それぞれの合計は欠損値も含んだ値

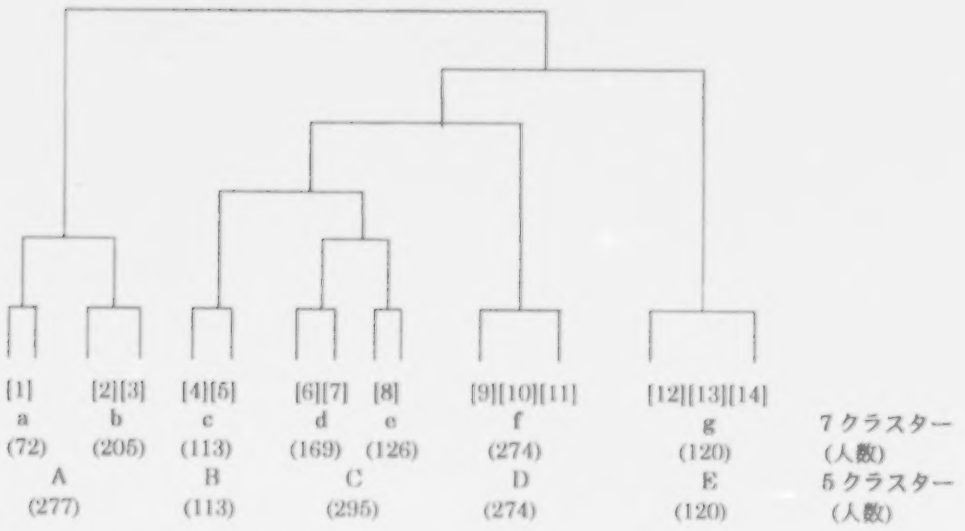

図1　言語学習動機づけクラスター

クラスターA：友好型
B：全般的に高い(友好も高い)／状況必然は中では低い
C：学習目標／成績目標高い
D：自己実現／競争高い
T：動機／行動／能力すべて高い
⇒ クラスターA①：学習型
B：全般的に高い(友好も高い／興味Hはふつう)／状況必然は低い
C：学習目標高い／成績目標／承認目標低い
D：自己実現／競争高い／協調低い
T：動機／行動／能力すべて高い
⇒クラスターA②：統合型
B：全般的に高い(友好／興味Hが特に高い)／状況必然も高い
C：学習目標／成績目標高い(承認目標もやや高い)
D：自己実現／競争高い／協調ふつう
T：動機／行動／能力すべて高い
クラスターB：実用型
B：興味L／社会的承認が高い／状況必然は低い
C：学習目標高い／成績目標／承認目標低い
D：自己実現のみ高い
T：動機／行動は高い／能力は低い
クラスターC：興味型
B：興味H／興味L／社会的承認／状況必然が高い
C：学習目標／承認目標／成績目標高い
D：競争／協調高い
T：動機は高い／行動はふつう／能力は低い
⇒ クラスターC①：競争・独立型
B：興味H／興味L／社会的承認／状況必然が高い(社会的承認がやや高い)
C：学習目標／承認目標／成績目標高い
＊有能感ふつう／自律性高い
D：競争高い／協調ふつう
T：動機は高い／行動はふつう／能力はふつう　＊行動―積極性／集中高め
⇒ クラスターC②：協調・依存型
B：興味H／興味L／社会的承認／状況必然が高い(社会的承認がやや低い)

C：学習目標／承認目標／成績目標高い
＊有能感低い／自立性低い
D：競争ふつう／協調高い
T：動機は高い／行動はふつう／能力は低い　＊行動—積極性／集中低い

クラスターD：必然型
B：興味L／状況必然が高い／友好は低い
C：成績目標高い／承認目標高い
D：どれも高くない
T：動機はふつう／行動／能力は低い

クラスターE：無関心型
B：状況必然のみ高い／友好／社会的承認は中でも低い
C：承認目標高い／学習目標低い／成績目標も低め
D：協調のみ高い
T：動機／行動／能力すべて低い

4. 言語学習動機づけの診断的分析

本研究において作成された言語学習動機づけ尺度を用いることにより，学習者はそれぞれのカテゴリーの値から，自身の言語学習において動機づけを阻害，または促進する要因が何であるのかを分析し，動機づけのプロフィールを作ることができる。尺度には動機の強さ，実際に動機づけられた行動，言語能力を測るカテゴリーもあり，言語を学びたいという気持ちが実際の行動に結びついているかどうかもみることができる。実際には個々のカテゴリーを説明するシートが結果とともに配られ，動機づけの自己診断が下せるようになっている(資料2)。また，教室においては，教師はクラス全体の平均をみることにより，全体的な動機づけの傾向をさぐることができる。それぞれの要因は言語学習のプロセスとも密接に結びついており，そこから教育的示唆を得ることができる。

しかしながら，カテゴリーに表される個々の要因は複雑に絡み合っており，実際に診断を下すのは難しい。そこで各カテゴリーの得点のパターンから，個々の学習者の言語学習動機づけの類型化が試みられた。クラスター分析の手法は新たに得た個人のデータを，上記のクラスターのうちどれに当てはまるか判断するのにも用いることができ，学習者のより全体的な言語学習動機づけの傾向を知ることができる。

このように学習者の持つ言語学習における動機づけの要因を診断的に分析することが可能となったわけだが，要因相互の関係はいまだ明らかとはいえず，さらなる分析がのぞまれる。また，今回の分析の対象は大学生ということであり，高校生や中学生に用いた場合，動機づけの構造が異なるということも予想され，同じ尺度を用い，横断的に比較分析をするなかで，今後さらに言語学習動機づけの構造の変化を追っていきたい。

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資料 1「言語学習動機づけ尺度」カテゴリー

A：英語学習価値観／感情／態度

A1「クラス内価値」(同一視)
Ex. 英語の授業で教えられていることを学ぶのは自分にとって重要だ

A2「クラス外価値」(同一視)
Ex. 自分の視野を広げるのに英語学習は有意義だと思う

A3「楽しさ」
Ex. 英語を学ぶのは楽しい

A4「態度」
Ex. 授業がなければ，興味がないので英語の学習をしないだろう

B：英語学習動機(第2言語学習特有の動機づけ)

B1「コミュニケーション／友好動機」
Ex. 英語を話す人々と友達になりたいので

B2「旅行・映画・音楽への興味動機」(Low Culture)
Ex. 英語の歌や，映画をわかるようになりたいので

B3「言語・文化への興味動機」(High Culture)
Ex. アメリカやイギリスの文化，歴史や文学に興味があるので

B4「仕事・社会的承認動機」(外的調整)
Ex. 英語は社会的に認められるために必要だと思うので

B5「試験・授業への義務動機」(状況必然)
Ex. 英語の単位が卒業するのに必要なので

C：動機づけに影響を及ぼす要因（個人的要因）

C1「有能感」
Ex. 自分の英語の能力はすぐれている

C2「自己効力感」
Ex. 英語に関して，教えられたことをきちんと学習する事ができる

C3「好奇心(自発性)」
Ex. 英語について，できるだけ多くのことを勉強したい

C4「自立性(独立達成)」
Ex. 難しい英語の問題でも，最後まで自分の力で解こうとがんばる

C5「自己決定」
Ex. 他人の意見にこだわらず，自分の考え通りに英語を学習している

C6「学習目標」
Ex. 英語ができるようになることが面白いから勉強する

C7「承認目標」
Ex. 友達から賞賛されたいから英語を勉強する

C8「成績目標」

Ex. テストでよい点をとりたいので，英語を勉強する

D：学習状況に関する要因

D1「自己実現」
Ex. 高い英語の能力を身につけたとしても，さらに努力していきたい

D2「競争」
Ex. 英語の勉強で努力するのは，他の人に負けないためだ

D3「協調」
Ex. 人と一緒に勉強や課題をやるほうが，調子が出る

E：学習経験に関する要因

E1「帰属（能力）」
Ex. 英語のテストで悪い点をとるのは，自分の能力が足りないからだ

E2「帰属（努力）」
Ex. 英語で良い成績をとるのは，自分ががんばって勉強したからである

E3「帰属（運）」
Ex. 英語で良い成績をとった時は，運がよかったと思う

E4「帰属（課題）」
Ex. 英語のテストの点が悪いのは，問題が難しすぎたからである

F：英語学習欲求

F1「学習欲求」
Ex. 社会人になっても，英語への学習意欲は失わないだろう

F2「習得欲求」
Ex. 英語が第二の母語になるくらいまで学びたい

G：英語学習行動

G1「積極性」
Ex. 英語を使う機会があれば，積極的に参加している

G2「関心」
Ex. 英語のテストなどで間違えたところは，かならず見直す

G3「集中・持続」
Ex. 英語の課題にねばりづよく取り組み続けることができる

G4「計画性・規則性」
Ex. 英語学習は，計画を立てて行っている

H：英語力

H1「初級技能」
Ex. 英米人がゆっくりと丁寧に話しているのを理解できる

H2「上級技能」
Ex. 字幕なしで英語の映画を理解できる

資料２　言語学習動機づけカテゴリー説明シート

カテゴリーA：英語学習に対する価値観，感情，態度

価値観は授業に対するもの(A1)と英語学習全般に対するもの(A2)に分かれます。感情(A3)や態度(A4)は楽しさや，英語学習全般への肯定的態度の強さをあらわします。

カテゴリーB：第２言語学習特有の動機（社会的要因）

B1-3 は態度に近いもので，カテゴリーA の態度が量的側面をあらわしていたのに対して，質的側面をあらわします。これらは大きくは友好動機と興味動機に分かれますが，興味動機は言語や文化などの高次の文化に対するもの(B3)と，映画，音楽，旅行などの低次の文化に対するもの(B2)に分かれます。本来はその上に，対象文化にとけ込み，アイデンティティーを獲得したいといった，統合(同化)動機が考えられますが，外国語として学んでいる際には見られないようで，予備調査では確認されなかったため入っていません。B4，5 は価値観に近いもので，A1，2 とあわせて考えると，英語学習の社会的な価値が個人内部に内化されていき，自分自身の価値になる過程を見ることができます。B5 の状況必然はまったく外的な価値観で，テストや授

業にあるから仕方がなくやるといった感じです。B4 の社会的承認になると幾分価値を意識しはじめ，外的調整の段階に入ります。そして，A1 や A2 になるとそれが自分自身の価値観として認識され，同一視されます。

カテゴリーC：動機づけに影響を及ぼす要因（個人的要因）

有能感(C1)と自己効力感(C2)はどちらも自分の能力に関する自信や自己知覚で，有能感が英語能力全体についてのものであるのに対し，自己効力感は課題などに対して，難易度をどれくらいと感じ，自分がそれをできると思うかどうかをあらわします。本来は行動がとれるか(効力期待)の自信ですが，ここでは行動が結果と結びつくか(結果期待)までふくめての自信をあらわしています(47，55 は効力期待，63，71 は結果期待よりの項目)。C3-5 は広い意味で自発性にあたりますが，C3 の好奇心が内発的動機の一部をなすのに対し，C4，5 はそれに影響する要因となります。C4 は自分の一人の力で何かを成し遂げようという傾向，C5 は自分から主体的に行動する傾向です。C6-8 は目標性をあらわし，英語の学習そのものが目的なのか(C6)，英語の学習が他の目標を達成するための手段なのか(C7，8)をあらわします。手段性は道具性と言い換えてもよいです。さらに手段性は承認目標と成績目標に分かれます。

カテゴリーD：英語の学習状況に関する要因（社会的要因）

英語学習の場において，他の学習者との関係をどう認識しているかをあらわします。自己実現(D1)は他人を意識するのではなく，自分の能力を高めることを重視し，独自性志向や挑戦志向が高いことを示します。競争(D2)は他者に打ち勝つことを重視し，協調(D3)は他人と一緒に学ぶことを重視しすることを示します。

カテゴリーE：過去の英語の学習経験に関する要因（個人的要因）

過去の英語学習において，成功または失敗した原因をどう認識しているかをあらわします。その原因の帰属の傾向によって，次の学習への取り組み方が変化します。

カテゴリーF：英語学習への欲求の強さ

英語を学習することへの欲求(動機)の強さ(F1)と，身につけることへの欲求の強さ(F2)をあらわします。2 つ合わせて総体的な英語学習欲求の強さとします。

カテゴリーG：英語の学習行動

英語の学習に積極的に取り組んでいるか(G1)，英語の学習への関心度の高さはどれくらいか(G2)，英語の学習に集中し，持続して取り組めるか(G3)，計画的に，規則的に英語を学習しているか(G4)の 4 つの観点から，実際に上記の動機の強さが学習行動に結びついているかをあらわします。4 つ合わせて総体的な英語学習行動の強さとします。

カテゴリーH：英語力

初級技能(H1)と上級技能(H2)にわけ，それぞれの行動への主観的な能力を測ります。それぞれ 4 技能とインタラクションを含むようになっています(大学生用の上級にはスピーキングのみを測るものはありません)。便宜的に，2 つを合わせたものを，総体的な英語力とします。

In-service Training with Japanese Teachers

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In this paper, I outline the demands of recent curriculum developments in English teaching in Japan and introduce the findings of a research project which, based on a series of case studies, suggests that in-service training courses are necessary to change teachers' attitudes, beliefs and classroom practice and to enable them to deliver the revised curriculum effectively.

この論文は，近年の日本における英語教育用カリキュラム開発の必要性を概観する。また，数々のケース・スタディーによって明らかにされた研究プロジェクトの幾つかの結果を報告し，現職教師に対する研修は，教師の態度，信念，及び教室実践を変え，与えられたカリキュラムの効果的な運用のために必要であるという提言をする。

Introduction

In 1988 the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture (Monbusho,1988) acknowledged its failings with the teaching of English and highlighted a number of key areas which, in its opinion, were preventing teachers from being successful. These were comprised of a lack of exposure to spoken English, a lack of confidence in communicating in English, large class sizes, difficult teaching materials, and adherence to traditional teaching methods. Concurrently, Monbusho announced its own view of the basic principles that should lie at the heart of the teaching of English. These were:

> to listen to as much authentic English as possible; to read as much living English as possible; to have as many chances to use English as possible; to extend a cultural background; and to cultivate a sense of international citizenship. (Monbusho, 1988)

In the Ministry's view, English teaching was seen to have two main thrusts: the acquisition of the language itself, and a developing knowledge of English-language cultures. The key terms in the language acquisition part of the proposition were *authentic, living,* and *use*; these aspects of English had never been afforded such importance before.

In 1989 the principles listed above achieved official documentary status in the *New Revised Course of Study: Emphasis on Oral Communication* (NRCOS). Now required to teach towards *communicative competence*, Japanese teachers of English may have felt justified in believing that Monbusho would deliver a curriculum with both the resources and the training to help achieve it. What, though, is the reality?

Resources

All public schools in Japan, under the School Education Law, are required to use textbooks in the teaching of English in junior and senior high school which have either been approved by Monbusho, or produced by the Ministry itself. Following the curriculum reform *new* textbooks were created which professed to assist in its implementation. However, the outcome has not always appeared to be in line with the objective, as this comment from a Japanese teacher of English, taking part in an in-service training programme, suggests:

> From the perspective of the development of CLT and the materials based on communicative methodology, I must say that there needs to be a lot of improvement in the methodology and the materials in Japan. The constraint, that teachers in Japan have to use the authorised textbooks which are based on the structural approach, is one difficult factor in improving the

methodology. (Lamie, 1998, p. 536)

The sentiment was echoed by respondents to a General Survey Questionnaire (GSQ) which I developed and distributed to about 100 teachers in 1996. In responding to a question on how far they perceived their teaching to have, or have not, changed, 31% of teachers highlighted the negative effect that the University entrance examination had on their teaching, and 30% referred to the need for further resource provision and in particular increased changes in prescribed textbooks:

- *The main stumbling block is the textbooks I have to use and the class size.*

- *In my opinion we should place more importance on the "use" rather than the "usage" in our English lesson. In that sense Oral Communication, a new subject, is welcome. But the problem is the content of the textbooks.*

With such criticisms by teachers entrusted with the reform, the need for expanded support and, in particular, training provision becomes paramount.

Training

The penultimate section of the GSQ centred on the topic of training. Ranging from short one-day local seminars to one-year overseas development programmes, in-service education and training (INSET) sponsored by Monbusho is widespread and varied, but remains voluntary. As a result, those teachers not sufficiently motivated to attend courses need not do so. Responses from the GSQ indicate that National Conferences on the implementation of the NRCOS have not been well attended (50% of senior high school teachers and 25% of junior high reported receiving no formal government training). Moreover, although Prefectural seminars have been more popular—possibly due to availability and convenience—with 75% of senior high and over 80% of junior high teachers taking part, there is still a need for more INSET sessions to be organised. Teachers who have not taken part in such sessions also need to be encouraged to do so.

What is abundantly clear from the survey is that those teachers fortunate enough to attend training courses have all derived motivation and a positive attitude towards change from their experiences:

- *Two British Council summer seminars in Tokyo have changed me a lot. These taught me the importance of having a theory and how to realise the objectives that I have.*

- *With the Tsukuba in-service training I began to think about introducing listening and speaking practice.*

- *I was given a chance to study in Britain and now feel I have a chance to change my teaching. Now I try to speak more English to the students and to improve their ability. I think studying in Britain changed me a lot.*

The following description of an overseas teacher training programme illustrates that participants not only *think* that they have changed, but demonstrates that alterations in attitudes, beliefs and methodology have occurred, and that actual change in classroom practice is increasingly likely as a result.

The 12-month Japanese secondary teachers' programme

Background

The Japanese Secondary Teachers' (JST) Programme at the University of Birmingham began in 1990 as a direct result of the NRCOS. Sponsored by the Ministry of Education and administered by the British Council, it has been responsible for training nearly 100 junior and senior high school teachers of English. The aim of the programme is to develop the teachers all-round English ability; to provide information

and training on alternative methodologies to enable them to deliver the revised curriculum effectively; and to give the participants an insight into the cultural background of the English language in Britain.

Evaluation and change

Evaluation of the course initially focused on the programme itself. Teachers were invited to comment on individual subjects and complete subject assessments, which were designed to improve the content of the training in relation to the teachers' needs. This *programme evaluation* continues to take place, but in order to determine the programme's ongoing effectiveness, it has now been coupled with *participant evaluation*. The data collection procedures are designed to gather two types of information:

- information concerning the subjects' *attitudes* (see Table I) towards education, and any change following the period of in-service training;

- information relating to the *methods* (see Table II) the subjects used in the classroom and ensuing change.

The Attitude (30 questions) and Methods (15 questions) Questionnaires, based on Telford's (1970) scales for attitudes and beliefs, and organisation and methods respectively, are given to the participants, on a semi-structured interview basis, before the programme commences, and again at its close. They cover information on the following areas: Aims, Organisation, Grammar, Materials, Vocabulary, Skills, Language in Use, and Testing.

Each item or statement on the questionnaires scores between 1 (traditional) and 5 (progressive). The terms traditional [*T*] and progressive [*P*] are used as benchmarks only. The development from one to the other indicates an awareness of resources, materials, and methodologies beyond those previously adhered to: the higher the score, the more progressive the interpretation. Results from the Methods Questionnaire (see Table II) indicated that perceived methodological changes had taken place in all recorded cases (see Table III).

Table I. Attitude Scale - extract

TEACHER ATTITUDE SCALE

Please read each statement and put a circle round the number which best represents your views

1 = I strongly agree
2 = I agree
3 = I cannot say
4 = I disagree
5 = I strongly disagree

8	Students should be encouraged to work in pairs	1 2 3 4 5
15	Lessons should include some group activities	1 2 3 4 5
28	Students should sit in rows facing the board	1 2 3 4 5

Table II. Methods Scale - extract

TEACHER ORGANISATION AND METHODS SCALE

Please read each statement carefully and put a tick in the box for which best represents ***what you DO in the classroom***

Organisation 3	Tick one
Students often work in groups and pairs	
Students always work individually	
Students mostly work in groups and pairs	
Students work equally individually, in pairs and in groups	
Students mostly work individually, but occasionally in groups and pairs	

Table III Methods Questionnaire Results Teachers A & B

	Teacher A		Teacher B	
Statement	1996	1997	1996	1997
1	4	4	1	3
2	1	4	1	1
3	2	3	2	2
4	2	3	2	2
5	4	5	3	4
6	2	2	2	2
7	3	3	2	5
8	2	3	2	2
9	1	2	2	2
10	1	4	1	3
11	4	5	4	2
12	3	3	2	4
13	4	4	4	4
14	1	1	1	1
15	2	2	1	2
Total	36	48	30	39
% Increase	33%		30%	

The most constant area of development was Classroom Organisation and Management, where no respondent demonstrated a move to the traditional. In addition, Language Use, Vocabulary and Listening all demonstrated shifts to the progressive. However, Grammar and Materials remained the two areas firmly ensconced in the traditional approach. Considering the prescribed nature of the resources mostly used in the English classroom in Japan, and the strong influence of the grammar-focused University Entrance Examination, this result is to be expected.

Attitude change is much more delicate to approach—and more difficult to achieve. What a teacher believes is at the heart of what a teacher is, professionally and personally. Attitudes are frequently not specific, difficult to articulate or comprehend. As a result, attitude change is complex (Fullan, 1991). Due to this, changes in practice frequently

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precede change in beliefs (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey, 1986; Huberman & Miles, 1984). At first glance, the findings from the Attitude Questionnaire would appear to concur with this point of view. For example, Teachers A and B (introduced in Table III) displayed an overall attitude change of 9% and 20% respectively. However, on closer inspection of the data, an attitude shift of 40% for Teacher A resulted and 37% for Teacher B (see Table IV).

Table IV Attitude Questionnaire Results Teachers A & B

	Teacher A		Teacher B	
a) T -> P	3		3	
b) P -> P+	2		0	
c) No Comment -> P	4		2	
d) T -> No Comment	3		5	
e) T -> T-	0		1	
f) P -> P-	0		0	
g) P-> No Comment	4		1	
h) No Comment -> T	1		0	
i) T -> T+	0		0	
j) P -> T	1		0	
k) No Change	12		18	
T <-------> P (a-e)	12	40%	11	37%
P <-------> T (f-j)	6	20%	1	3%
No Change	12	40%	18	60%

Once again, questions relating to Organisation and Language Use provided the most change in responses from T to P; interestingly, those on Grammar and Materials proved to be particularly progressive, indicating that teachers may have a belief that a more liberal approach should be taken in the classroom. As previously mentioned, however, they feel that they have difficulty transferring this to classroom practice, given the constraints placed on them.

Conclusion

Teachers are integral to the success of implementing curriculum innovation. Teacher education, development, and support are imperative if curriculum development and change in the classroom are to take place. Japanese teachers of English in junior and senior high schools are still waiting for the full weight of this support to occur. Over 90 teachers have taken part in the INSET course at the University of Birmingham, which has proven, within its limitations, to be a success. Participants on the JST programme have demonstrated a change in an area considered the most difficult and challenging to change: attitudes and beliefs. If the constraints placed on such teachers are further addressed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, other changes in practice are destined to follow.

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Applications of Community Language Learning in Japan

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In this paper, I explain Community Language Learning (CLL), an approach in which the teacher, proficient in the target language (TL) and the students' native language, uses tape recordings of student conversations and counseling techniques to encourage the students to perceive their "selves" as TL speakers. I then describe a "generic" CLL classroom and the technique that CLL uses to develop the TL self in the student. However, this understanding of the approach is adapted to Japanese women's universities, in consideration of the culture in which I teach. In this paper, I also describe how I (a) conduct the free conversation period (during which the students' conversation is recorded); (b) counsel the students after the conversation; (c) use the students' written impressions of their experiences as additional counselling; and, (d) use a second recording to help the students feel the "presence" of their TL selves.

著者はコミュニティ・ランゲージ・ラーニング（以下 CLL）について詳述する。CLL の教員は目標言語にも学習者の母国語にも通じる者である。CLL の教員は学習者が交わした会話の録音やカウンセリングを利用して，学習者に「目標言語での自分」を感じさせる。著者は「包括的な」CLL教室の状況を描き，「目標言語での自分」をどのように学習者に気づかせるかを説く。だが，著者が行った CLL のアプローチは日本国内の女子大学でのものだけに，「日本文化」に合わせて適応させてある。当論文で著者は，(a)フリー・コンバセーションの行い方とそれの録音，(b)フリー・コンバセーション後のカウンセリング，(c)学習者が書くフリー・コンバセーションに対する「感想文」の使用，(d)学習者に「目標言語での自分らしさ」を感じさせる２回目の録音等の方法を解説する。

Introduction

Community Language Learning (CLL) is an approach to language learning in which the teacher, proficient in the target language (TL) and the students' native language (NL), uses tape recordings of student-generated conversations and counseling techniques to encourage the students to perceive their "selves" as speakers of the TL (Curran, 1972, 1976; Rardin & Tranel, 1988; Stevick, 1980, 1990). The language student who develops an understanding of his or her TL "speaking

self" is a confident language learner, less anxious about making errors when speaking in the TL (Brown, 1994; Clark, 1980).

The observer of a beginning CLL class would see a group of students having a conversation about topics they had thought of themselves. The students speak to each other in their NL; the teacher translates what the students say into the TL and has them repeat it. A tape recording is made of the students' conversation so that they can hear their voices in the TL. CLL succeeds when the students stop relying on the teacher's help to speak in the TL; this informs the "breakthrough" in CLL: the emergence of the students' nascent TL selves.

How CLL develops the TL self

The CLL teacher uses a technique to create the TL self similar to that which Dowrick (1977) used to raise his subjects' (emotionally and physically challenged children) self-confidence. Dowrick had physical therapists help the children perform tasks that, in their present condition, the children could not do. He videotaped the children's performance; however, he edited the videotapes so that the therapists did not appear in the final version. The children, seeing their new "selves" performing the tasks unaided, reported higher levels of self-confidence and motivation. They had developed "can do it" selves and subsequently aspired to satisfy the goals that these new images of themselves had created (as cited in Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Dowrick's subjects "saw" their new selves perform without help; the CLL student, on the other hand, "hears" his or her TL self. The CLL teacher helps the student say what he or she wants to say in the TL (through translation and pronunciation practice) and records the student's utterance; however, only the student's voice, speaking in the TL, is heard in the tape playback.

Two caveats

Larsen-Freeman (1986) and Rardin and Tranel (1988) noted that CLL is a pliant approach to language learning, not a rigid method. Adams (1990) and La Forge (1983), for example, described how they applied CLL in their Japanese classrooms; their interpretations, however, reflected their notions of how CLL should be applied in their respective teaching environments. Adams, on the one hand, worked with a mixed class of college students (of unspecified number) and involved the students in CLL's translation/transcription process. He also included a post-conversation error session in which all the students participated. La Forge, on the other hand, applied his version of CLL—with 25 male high school E.S.S. (English Speaking Society) members ranging in age from 14 to 17—as a disciplined gasshuku (training program) "in connection with the cultural mechanisms of Japanese society" (p. 110).

The CLL that I explain in this paper, however, reflects my interpretation of the approach relative to the environments in which I taught: required English conversation courses (30 weekly 90-minute classes) at a women's private junior college (two classes of first-year general English majors, 18 and 10 students, respectively) and a women's public university (one class of 17 English literature majors). Since CLL is a humanistic approach to language learning (Stevick, 1990), conventional evaluation through grades reduces its effectiveness. Consequently, I do not recommend methods to evaluate the CLL students' "progress" in this paper.

The CLL teacher adapts CLL to the students' culture

The CLL teacher adapts the approach to the classroom; the teacher must not forget, however, the central tenet of CLL: That the student, to develop the TL self, can only do so in an anxiety-free environment in which he or she feels confident to experiment in the TL. What constitutes a source of anxiety in one culture, however, may not be problematic in another. Thus, while the CLL teacher strives to create a productive environment, he or she does so

with the understanding that a large part of that environment already exists in the cultural background and individual personalities that the students bring into the CLL classroom.

A country's education system is part of the country's culture. The Japanese university student has developed an "English self" in Japan's English language education system. This self is the student's present attitude toward English and his or her self-image as a speaker of it. That attitude often is reflected in the persona the student exhibits in the CLL classroom. Curran (1972) noted that the more experience the beginning CLL student has had with traditional TL education the greater the resistance the student feels toward speaking in the TL. Secondary-level English education in Japan is directed toward successful completion of university entrance examinations; consequently, the system does not tolerate errors (Rohlen, 1983). The resulting fear of errors paralyzes many students in CLL's early stages. Furthermore, "entrance examination English" (juken Eigo), demands a knowledge of literary, rather than colloquial, English; as a result, many beginning CLL students feel that speaking in English demands that they "discuss elevated, important topics," rather than those things that they usually talk about among themselves in Japanese.

Former CLL students have consistently expressed two additional reasons for their resistance to speak, both of which may be attributable to their culture: first, a reluctance to initiate a conversation for fear of causing a fellow student to err and "lose face"; and second, a hesitation to speak first in English, without waiting for my translation, for fear of seeming arrogant in front of the other students (for more on these issues, see Lebra, 1976). Stevick (1980) noted that North American CLL students have similar concerns. My students, however, have felt such a high degree of anxiety about these issues that I now talk about them on the first day of new classes. I do not, however, suggest a "solution" for these "problems"; simply bringing the issues to the students' attention, letting them know that I am aware of their unvoiced concerns, relieves their initial misgivings. Counseling, as the class progresses, further lessens their anxiety.

The CLL classroom: The first class

In the first class, I try to alleviate the students' general apprehension about what I expect them to do. I begin with some anecdotes about my Japanese speaking self. I relate (in Japanese) that in many situations (using the phone, speaking in front of groups, trying to comprehend in noisy environments), my Japanese self is "shy:" It has trouble performing, whereas my English self does not. The students' nascent English speaking selves, I assure the students, may be shy too. I then explain how CLL is similar to traditional Japanese learning techniques, *karada de oboeru* (to learn by doing), that the students have experienced in Japanese traditional art forms and sports clubs.

I then describe a typical class. I explain that in every class, the students will participate in the "conversation corner" (the CLL free conversation period) in groups of 4 to 6. The students can choose with whom they wish to participate (the remaining students are involved in textbook or handout activities). The conversation corner is an appropriate number of chairs, arranged in a circle, in a back corner of the classroom. It is a place to practice speaking, I emphasize, without worrying about mistakes. (I do not correct "errors" in the conversation corner.) I show the students the hand-held tape recorder that I will use to tape their conversations. To relieve their anxiety about having their conversations recorded, I tape myself, speaking in Japanese in front of them. I talk about the anxiety I still feel when I tape my voice, and explain the physiological reasons our voices sound "different" to ourselves when we hear them on tape. I play the tape back before I return to

explaining the conversation corner. Once the students are seated, I explain, I ask them to begin. The conversation corner lasts exactly 10 minutes. The students decide what they want to speak about. They can speak in Japanese, English, a combination of the two, or say nothing at all. I move behind whichever student wants to speak (which she indicates by raising her hand). I translate what she says and she repeats it; if she has trouble, we record in "chunks" of speech, recording as many words as the student can express.

The class ends by having the students introduce themselves in whichever language they wish; if they choose to speak in Japanese, it is translated it into English and they repeat it. They are also given homework to prepare them for the conversation corner: The students are told to listen closely to the conversations they have, and the conversations that others have around them, over the next week. They are to notice how their conversations rarely have single topics, and how people seldom talk in textbook ABAB patterns.

The CLL classroom: Subsequent classes

At the beginning of every class, a schedule of activities is written on the blackboard so that the students can see what is expected of them at any time. I write the conversation corner group numbers on the board and have the students write their names in the groups in which they want to participate. Textbook (or handout) work is also assigned to students waiting their turn in the conversation corner.

The first group of students comes to the conversation corner and we begin. After two or three minutes of silence, a student asks me in Japanese what they should talk about—that question is the beginning of their conversation. I translate the utterance ("What should we talk about?") and have the student record it. We then wait for the next student who wants to speak. I neither praise nor censure a student's conduct in or out of the conversation corner; to do so sets a standard of expected behavior that the student feels she must live up to.

After 10 minutes elapse, I tell the students that the time is up. I draw a chair into the group, sit down, and ask each student, in Japanese, the deliberately ambiguous "How was it today?" (Kyo wa do datta no) without referring to any aspect of the conversation corner or any student's individual performance. If a student's response is noncommittal ("Okay, I guess."), I nod and ask the next student. If her response is specific ("I wanted to say something but was too embarrassed."), I rephrase her sentence so that she understands her problem is not "personal": "Yeah, there are lots of times when I've wanted to say something in Japanese but was too embarrassed to."

My sympathetic counseling response, however, has limited efficacy: The students are more concerned with what their fellow students think. Consequently, after the conversation corner, I have the students anonymously write, and hand in, their impressions of the conversation corner experience. The paper is labeled, in Japanese, "impressions" (kansobun); I do not tell the students what to write. I read these impressions after class, mark those that are pertinent, and read them aloud at the beginning of the following class (respecting the students' anonymity). Reading the impressions to the class strengthens the class's feeling of community and lowers both general class, and individual student, anxiety.

Before class the next week, I make a transcript of the conversations. On the transcript, I correct the students' errors that I ignored in the conversation corner; I do not, however, bring these errors to the students' attention. At the beginning of the class, the transcripts are distributed to all the students so that each group can read the other groups' conversations. I read the transcripts aloud and review pronunciation points. Each group then assembles in the conversation corner to make the second recording. (I do not let the students hear the first recording; it is full of debilitating false starts, mis-

pronunciations, etc.) Each student and I practice her utterance until she can pronounce it (again, in chunks if necessary) accurately. Then, the tape is played back. It should be noted that the more accurate the student's pronunciation, the greater she feels the "presence" of her English speaking self when she hears her voice during the playback. The students are again asked what they thought, and write their impressions.

Concluding remarks: The breakthrough in CLL

In CLL's early stages, students have trouble with pronunciation. As the students become used to the CLL cycle (first recording, counselling, practicing, second recording, counselling), however, their anxiety decreases, their pronunciation steadily improves, and the silences in the conversation corner diminish.

The breakthrough in CLL occurs when the students' English speaking selves emerge, usually by the sixth class. Ironically, the appearance of the students' English selves first takes place in their native language. During the first 5 classes, the students hypercorrect their Japanese: They speak in the formal "desu-masu" form of the language which reveals their high level of anxiety. The breakthrough begins when the students in the conversation corner speak in the everyday register of the language they use with their friends outside the conversation corner. Within a week or two after the breakthrough, the students' English selves develop further: They begin to mix English with their Japanese. Once the breakthrough occurs, the CLL teacher's load lightens: The students are more open during the counselling sessions (they no longer have to write their impressions) and, as their pronunciation improves, the need for transcripts and second recordings decreases.

CLL demands a lot from the teacher; the reward, however, is well worth the effort. To the teacher who has spent a long time in his or her adopted country, who knows its people and language well, CLL is an opportunity to use that knowledge and experience in a meaningful way. The drudgery of all the "work" that the teacher puts into CLL disappears once the students' English selves take over the conversation corner. As the students gain confidence in their new selves they rely less on the teacher—until the day comes when a student, responding to something another student has said in the conversation corner, grabs the tape recorder, answers in English, and then, looking up at the teacher, sheepishly asks, "Do I have to wait for you?"

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TQM in the Language Classroom

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Total Quality Management has been used by industry to improve efficiency. Likewise, language teaching is also concerned with efficiency. It may therefore be useful to see how the principles from one area of endeavor can inform our own. In this paper, I describe the philosophy of TQM and how it can be put in to practice in our classes. I raise some of the problems with TQM found in the literature and from personal experience, and provide hints on how to solve them. I conclude that TQM provides a coherent set of principles similar to ideas found in learner autonomy. It is thus a useful informant for language teaching.

TQM (Total Quality Management) は生産効率の改善のために工場で使用されてきた。語学教育の場においても同様に効率の良さについて関心が高まっている。従って，工業の場で役立っている観念が教育現場へどのような示唆を与えるのかを見ることは有益であると考える。この論文は TQM の理念を解説するとともに，それが授業の場でどのように展開されるかを示している。TQM に関する文献や自らの体験からその問題点にも触れ，それらの解決につながるヒントを掲載している。結論として TQM が「学習者の自律」に見られる考えに似た一連の理念を提示し，かつ言語教育の場に役立つ情報を与えてくれることを示している。

Introduction.

The Total Quality Management (TQM) movement is most often related to attempts by industry to increase profits and reduce costs by providing quality service and products. Certain TQM principles have been transferred to education, as documented by Herman and Herman (1995) and Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993), who describe innovations in management at a district or school-wide level. Other examples of TQM in education are given in Meacham Wilson and Coolican (1996), who explore teacher empowerment by investigating intrinsic motivation, and Cole (1995), who discusses the use of TQM principles in selecting faculty. Lastly, Browder (1994) investigates what teacher empowerment means to four teachers.

However, it is possible to apply TQM principles at a more immediate level in the classroom, where teachers act as managers and work with students to produce something of quality. Both TQM and language teaching are concerned with efficiency, which is why an investigation of its principles may prove useful.

This paper presents a discussion of the relevance of TQM to language teaching. I shall begin by discussing the principles that underline TQM and showing how they are reflected in the classroom. I shall next outline generic problems from the literature and also from personal experience, and finish by giving hints on using TQM. Much of the subsequent discussion may be familiar in that TQM shares many similarities with notions found in learner

autonomy.

TQM and language classrooms
TQM evolved from ideas developed by American management guru Peter Denning in the 1950's. Denning envisioned a way of empowering workers so that everyone within an organization could take responsibility on a quest for quality. Flood (1993) provides a useful definition of quality: "Quality means meeting customers' (agreed) requirements, formal and informal, at lowest cost, first time every time." What follows is a more detailed discussion of the principles within TQM and their applicability to language classes. The principles are united by the theme of empowerment.

Empowerment
TQM gives people responsibility for their work. It asks them how they could do their job better. It involves them in the decision making process. This leads to increased confidence and motivation. People begin to feel they "own" their job. It also implies empowered customers who are more interactive in the production process. Empowerment implies a reevaluation of the roles and responsibilities of the teacher and the students. It is already found in classrooms espousing learner autonomy. Classrooms that see language as a tool encourage empowerment. Teaching learner strategies, interaction strategies, encouraging learner awareness and responsibility or self-access is empowering. It is implied in all the following principles.

Customer needs = organization needs
Efficiently providing the required product is the main aim of TQM. This implies systems for data collection of customer needs and responses. A TQM based class investigates the needs of its students via questionnaires, self-reports, interview transcripts or diagnostic testing. It also investigates the needs of the sponsors, for example universities, employers, parents, and society as a whole. Data are used to inform the content and style of the class and discussed with the students to create a more relevant syllabus.

Continuous improvement
TQM is committed to continuously improving quality. This implies using collected data to improve the production process. TQM also means training to increase skills and knowledge. TQM encourages research, experimentation and benchmarking, i.e., different groups working on the same task compare ideas and experiences. A TQM classroom provides chances for feedback to improve both the teacher's and students' performance. Activities include a feedback section to discover the strengths and weaknesses, and whether the performance goals and criteria were realistic and attainable. Ellis (1995) gives suggestions on how to asses the efficiency of an activity. Benchmarking means that students working on the same task can discuss their performance and learn from each other, for example peer-teaching and peer-editing.

Top-down commitment
Commitment must be seen in the actions of the people who make decisions. The "total" in TQM implies complete commitment across all levels of the organization (Flood, 1993). Myer and Zucker (1989) suggest that in failing organizations people are not committed to anything other than what each individual can get out of the company. A teacher might show commitment by involving the students in the decision-making process. This can be done by students and teachers sharing their learning/teaching journals. If the teacher leads by example students may gain in confidence and begin to be more interactive.

Systematic measurement
Systematic measurement implies regular, objective data collection to monitor the work done, often relying on statistical measures. Data gained in this way are used to pinpoint

success or failure and are reapplied to the process to increase quality. In class, measurement should be objective, meaningful, responsive and agreed between the students and the teacher. However, TQM does not rely solely on statistical measurement. Teachers and students can use qualitative data collection devices such as questionnaires and interviews to obtain more reflective information. Furthermore, students can create their own evaluation criteria and descriptors and explain what a particular grade or percentage means. Students can agree a format for evaluating each others' performance as suggested in O'Sullivan (1996).

Proactive management
A TQM oriented organization aims to predict successes and failures and is not interested in reactive management. Likewise, teachers and students need to be aware of the issues involved in making an activity (Ur, 1996). This includes explicit awareness of the rationale, goals, criteria for evaluation, pacing, procedure, resources, and means of feedback. Teachers and students can anticipate and solve problems that may arise by piloting the activity.

Added value
In a TQM organization, every job must add extra quality to the product. There must be a sound rationale behind what happens. Any act that does not add value in some objectively measurable way is questioned. In a TQM classroom, students are aware of the relevance and purpose of each activity. Students can predict how an activity will help them, or explain the link between one activity and the next.

Ease of communication
TQM views people as equals. In a non-hierarchical environment, communication is short, responsive and personal. People have agendas beyond the work place. A TQM oriented classroom means teaching clarification strategies, learner strategies and interaction strategies as a way of facilitating communication. It encourages positive feedback in visible and personal ways (Whetton & Cameron, 1991). Giving students the skills and security to ask questions will inevitably empower them and improve the quality of the class.

The human factor
TQM recognizes the need for creativity, responsibility, and fun as sources of motivation. It highlights McGregor's (1960) Theory Y managers who assume that (a) work and study are as natural as play; (b) self-control is of fundamental importance in reaching goals; (c) everyone has the capacity to solve problems; (d) motivation includes social aspects, self-esteem and self-actualization; (e) people can be self-directed and creative if properly motivated. The TQM classroom would capitalize on the human factor by realizing that learners and language can be unpredictable, and that language interacts with human experience. Students can generate meaningful and motivating activities and material themselves.

Defining objectives and agreeing requirements
Objectives are explicit and negotiated. Goals are inspiring and challenging. Employees are encouraged to take part in defining the goals and to share the mission. People are aware of the relationship between their efforts and the goals. Furthermore, producers and customers define a certain standard. A TQM classroom aims for consensus about the goals, procedures and timing for an activity. During class it is useful to discuss the aims, measurements systems, and procedures for an activity. Students will perform better if they are aware of the rationale behind a language task. Nunan (1988) has argued for more negotiation in the classroom and suggests this will increase language learning.

This concludes a discussion of the basic principles of TQM and how they can be applied in the classroom. Now I will

present some of the problems that may arise.

Problems in using TQM in the language classroom.

Problems generic to TQM in industry also apply to TQM in classrooms. First I will present problems described in the literature. Then I will discuss problems that have arisen from my own experience.

The attitude of management is of fundamental importance. Parry (1993) points out that TQM programs in businesses often fail due to ill-prepared or uncommitted management. As Simmons, Vazquez, and Harris (1993) explain, "Many managers are reluctant to let subordinates make their own decisions for fear things will get out of control." For teachers, empowering students would be like letting the fox guard the chicken coup. Teachers might feel threatened and fear a reduction in discipline and standards.

Managers, like teachers, are often hidebound. Many teachers teach as they were taught. Challenging their assumptions or asking how they can create more efficient classes is not an issue. Furthermore, there is often pressure to conform to the local teaching style. Richards and Lockhart (1994) quote a Japanese EFL teacher with this problem: "If I do group work or open-ended communicative activities, the students and other colleagues will feel that I'm not really teaching them."

Lack of awareness of the opportunities provided by TQM is a problem. As Foy (1994) puts it "people who have been hostages take a long time to adjust to freedom... ." People need to be shown the benefits of empowerment. Poor planning is another problem. Parry (1993) suggests the sudden shock of TQM could be fatal. We should be wary of poor data collection devices and unvalidated questionnaires and surveys, and watch for over-concern with measurement and untested tests. We should try to maintain a balanced focus on goals and processes.

On a more personal level, TQM forces me to ask questions not raised in the literature. A fundamental concern is the notion of "quality". I feel "quality" is something beyond attempting to meet expressed needs. Cultural appropriacy is another question. Students in Japan seem to be uncomfortable with notions of strict criteria, objective standards and giving feedback to each other and to their teacher. Students are unwilling to comment on or, as they see it, criticize each other. However, this is not limited to Japanese classrooms but may be evident wherever empowerment is promoted. My final concern is more difficult to explain. In my experience, TQM gradually strips the class of mystery. At times I feel it is too explicit. Objective and systematic measurement and data collection prevent me from relying on impressions and intuition. I wonder, what is the role of intuition and gut feeling? I enjoy the mystery of seeing something happen in class and NOT being able to explain it. I enjoy living and teaching with my senses. I think my students do too. This is something I have yet to resolve.

Hints on using TQM

The following advice comes from industry, but transfers to our classes. Empowerment does not take place immediately but evolves through a gradual process of taking responsibility. It needs a strategic step-by-step process and must be defined operationally (Holpp, 1994). This means the teacher needs to explain what students will be able to do and what responsibilities they will take at which times and under what conditions. Similarly, Parry (1993) suggests managers develop action plans. We can make our students aware of the goals, procedures, timing and relevance of each activity.

Empowerment demands interactive skills. Parry (1993) gives a list of skills that aid TQM. Empowerment is developed by increasing (a) analytical thinking, (b) the ability to ask questions, (c) the ability to listen to and organize information, and (d) the ability to reinforce appropriate behaviour.

These skills might constitute learning strategies which would prove useful in any situation.

Foy's (1994) suggestion that action-learning approaches are good ways of empowering people can be transferred to language teaching. Her view that problem-solving is an opportunity to instil TQM ideals correlates with the current language teaching paradigm where task-focused group activities engender greater language use. Students need time to get used to their new role, therefore teachers should create activities that slowly broaden their horizons. We can also encourage coaching and benchmarking, or peer-teaching.

Many of the ideas found in TQM and empowerment should not surprise us. They are already reflected in our classrooms when we advocate and teach learner strategies (Wendin & Rubin, 1987); when we use needs analysis and negotiation to meet students' requirements (Nunan, 1988); when we use collaborative group work (Coelho, 1991), or when we encourage learner autonomy. TQM is more than just a business practice for strategic level decision making; it is a relevant and practical set of principles that already inform our classes and will lead to more efficient language teaching.

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Promoting English Use in the EFL Classroom

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There is research suggesting that use of the first language (L1) can help build classroom rapport and increase L2 output. However, in an EFL setting there is both a lack of opportunity to use the L2 outside of class and peer pressure to use the L1 in class. Therefore, it is necessary for the instructor to maximize use of the target language within the class. In this paper, we include a theoretical overview of the use of the L1 vs. the use of only the L2 in EFL classes; examples of classroom policies and activities developed and used to promote L2 use; and, explanations of how the policies and activities have increased L2 use.

英語教授法の研究の中には，第一言語(L1) を使用することにより，教室での教師―学生の良い相互関係（ラポート）を築くことができ，第二言語(L2) の発話を促すという説がある。しかし，EFL の環境においては，授業以外で L2 を使用する機会の不足と，授業中は L1 を使用せざるをえない周囲からのプレッシャーがある。そのため，教師は授業中生徒の学習言語の使用を最大限に促す必要がある。本稿では，EFL の授業における L1 による指導と L2 のみによる指導に関する理論的背景を概観し，授業実践における L2 使用の試みや言語活動などについて論じる。また，このような試みがいかに L2 使用を促したかについても触れる。

Introduction

Research into code-switching in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom shows that students' use of their first language (L1) can help build classroom rapport among students (Ogane, 1997). There are also claims for the pedagogical usefulness of the L1 in English classes (Auerbach, 1993; Lucas & Katz, 1994; Weschler, 1997, 1998). However, in an EFL setting, it is necessary for the instructor to maximize use of the target language within the class, both because of a lack of opportunities outside of class to use the L2 and because of peer pressure inside of class to use the L1. In this paper we describe our particular teaching situation, provide theoretical background for promoting L2 use, show examples of classroom policies and activities developed for and used in their classes to promote L2 use, and explain how the policies and activities have increased the amount of L2 use.

Teaching situation

The Intermediate English classes of the Kwansei Gakuin University Language Center consist of three 90-minute classes per week for two semesters. A maximum of 25 students in the 440–549 Institutional TOEFL score range are placed in a lower and an upper level class for each university department. The main goal of the course is to help students listen to and express themselves in spoken English. The students have already spent 6 years in junior and senior high school studying English, but they have not had much practice in speaking and listening to English. Students in the program are usually highly motivated, for they choose to take these classes instead of their regular department English classes (which meet only once per week).

Students' participation grades (30% of their course grade) are based in part on their using exclusively English in class. Students lose points for Japanese use during classes (see Appendix A for the program-wide participation grading policy). In our

promotion of this rule, we see complete L2 use as the ideal situation, rather than as the minute-to-minute reality of the students' speech. We also acknowledge that other teachers may have very different teaching situations.

Theoretical background

Whether or not to enforce an English-only rule is a delicate matter. Use of the L1 in the language classroom has long been a subject of debate in language education (see Auerbach, 1993, and Lucas & Katz, 1994, for ESL and Weschler, 1997, for EFL). Tudor (1996) points out that in a foreign language learning environment "the classroom may be the main or even the sole learning opportunity" (p. 188). In addition, students need to learn how to describe things for which they do not know the words and how to ask for clarification in the L2. Cole (1998) sees benefits to use of the L1, but also asserts that:

> when students continue using L1 to explain simple vocabulary or to get out of trouble instead of using "Help" language, they are using too much L1. Japanese [L1] should not be used to save students embarrassment at miscomprehension and placate fears of failure or compensate for lack of motivation. (p. 13)

Moreover, it can be very difficult for students in a monolingual L2 class to use the L2 with their peers (see Class Survey, Appendix B, Questions 19 and 20). In trying to get the most English use possible in three and a half hours of English class per week, we have developed and used the following English-promoting classroom policies and activities in their classes.

Classroom policies

The no Japanese contract

The *No Japanese Contract* uses the Japanese *batsu* game, or penalty concept, as an amusing way of curtailing student use of L1. Students are given the opportunity to participate in helping to determine consequences of their Japanese use by brainstorming and then voting on possible penalties. In our classes these have included singing a song in English, giving an one-minute impromptu speech in English, and bringing snacks for everyone to the next class meeting.

This policy helps to promote English use because the students are held accountable for deciding on the penalty and are careful to honor their contracts. Students are often willing to police each other as the eventual penalty has an element of fun and/or a reward for everyone. This concurs with Chang's (1992) finding that "when students are invited to regulate language use themselves, they consciously use the target language more, and the teacher's role as ESL enforcer, or corrector diminishes" (cited in Auerbach, 1993, p. 7).

As the course progresses this policy loses its element of fun and tends to dwindles out. However, Japanese use tends to become less of an issue during class activities as students become more comfortable speaking in English with each other.

English use enforcement policy

This policy is directly related to the formal grouping of students in the class. The students are divided into six groups of four members each which are changed three times per term. This grouping format is a daily routine and allows students both to interact more in English and to reduce anxiety (Helgesen, 1993). In addition, students fulfill various roles (leader, secretary, timekeeper, reporter, and language police officer) in their groups so that each group member has a specific responsibility. The group member who takes on the role of language police officer (six in each class) writes tickets to students who speak Japanese in class. A student who receives a ticket can choose to pay 10 yen towards a future class activity, recite a short poem in English, or give a Japanese-to-English translation of what they said in Japanese.

At the beginning of the course, the idea

of formally enforcing the use of English by other members of a group was received by most students as fun. As the semester progressed, however, the process of writing tickets and allowing time for retribution was perceived by students as monotonous and an ineffective use of class time. Nevertheless, as the students' anxiety level concerning open discussion in English subsided, the need to enforce became less of a priority. By the end of the school year, ticket writing was completely eliminated.

The no-punishment policy

Before the following policy was put into effect, the teacher did a short survey of the students to promote understanding of the rationale behind the policy and to get their opinions in order to fine-tune some of the points (e. g., whether to allow Japanese language use before class begins, see Appendix B, Question 17). As expected, many students thought that it is difficult to use English in class, especially when others are using Japanese (Appendix B, Questions 19 and 20), and many of them wanted the teacher to force them to use English (Question 15). The survey was then used by the other two authors in their classes to get student input (all six classes showed similar results).

Figure 1.
The No-Punishment Policy

1. You will each have five tickets with your name on them to keep.

2a. If you use any Japanese in class (from the opening bell until the end of class), you must give one ticket to the teacher.
b. If you use any Japanese during group work (or pair work), you must give one ticket to your group leader (or partner), who will pass it on to the teacher later.
c. If a member of your group (or pair) uses any Japanese during group work (or pair work) and you don't take a ticket from him/her, then *all of you* must give one of your tickets to the teacher.

3. At the end of the week, the number of tickets that you have left is your *score* for the week for the "Speaking & Writing in English in Class" portion of the Class Participation grade. (For weeks 3–15, the scores will be *averaged* together to make the final grade.)

4. At the beginning of class on Mondays, you will receive your tickets *back* to start out the new week with another five chances.

5. So that you can get used to the policy, for *this first week only*, you can call a *one-minute "time out"* and use Japanese to get an explanation from a classmate. However, it must last no more than one minute.

6. Remember that it's O.K. to ask *in English about* a Japanese word (e.g., "How do you say *sekkyokuteki* in English?").

As an alternative to punishments, the *No-Punishment Policy* (see Figure 1) also aims to make students more aware of their use of Japanese in the classroom and to encourage English use. When students who are using Japanese are asked to try using English, sometimes they are honestly not aware that they have been speaking Japanese. When the teacher politely requests one of the students' tickets, the student is made concretely aware of the use of Japanese. This policy also makes it clear that students need to think about their own Japanese use and how their classmates' Japanese use affects them. Thus, in the second week of

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the semester, after the students have become more comfortable with each other and after they have practiced English classroom language (e.g., asking for clarification and explaining), the teacher implements this policy.

The *No-Punishment Policy* does not significantly affect students' participation grades. The goals are awareness of L1 use and encouragement of L2 use. One group of the students took this policy so much to heart that, before doing *janken* (paper, scissors, stone) to choose roles for a presentation, they even asked the teacher, "How can we do *janken* in English?"

One potential problem with this policy is the time needed for collecting tickets for Japanese use. Students often do not have their tickets or leave them in one area of the classroom before moving to another for groupwork. After the first few weeks, awareness is raised. The teacher stops collecting tickets, instead writing down students' names and politely informing them.

Classroom activities

Group discussion

This student-generated activity can be used as a warm-up activity for every class. At the beginning of the semester students are given a number as they walk into the classroom. Each number corresponds to one of the class meetings of the term. The names of the students are then filled in to a chart containing the day on which each student is responsible for preparing the discussion. Students are required to choose a topic. Then they must produce a handout with three questions on the topic and three vocabulary words with definitions (see Figure 2).

Figure 2.
Example of a student-generated group discussion handout

Abortion
By Yoko Sato

1. Are you for or against abort

2. Do you think it is right for the government to decide whether people can have an abortion or not? Why?

3. If you got pregnant right now, would you have an abortion?

Vocabulary

have an abortion/abort (v) - the act of stopping the development of a child inside woman, surgical termination of a pregnancy
abortionism (n) - the issue of whether abortion is right or not
abortionist (n) - a doctor who performs abortions

For each discussion, students are placed in groups of four to six. They decide on a leader, a reporter, and a recorder, and discuss the topic for 15 to 20 minutes. The student that prepared the discussion then asks the reporter for each group to share the most interesting points raised during their group's discussion.

Since the students choose the topics, the topics are generally on subjects that are of interest to their classmates as well. Similarly, because students prepare the questions and vocabulary words, the language used in preparing the materials is at a level that is manageable for the majority of their classmates. Students are motivated to use the target language when they are

discussing things that pertain to their own situations. They also feel at ease when the language required to participate is at a level that they can control.

The logistics involved in implementing this activity may seem a little time consuming. Likewise, it may take students a while to get used to the idea of discussing issues in English. However, once a schedule has been made and a few discussions have taken place the activity tends to drive itself, and students begin to relax and participate in the discussions. It is important to have a back-up activity or discussion should a student be absent or fail to prepare for their scheduled discussion.

Media article discussion

As with the Group Discussion activity above, this activity increases the use of English in class by combining group-based activities and student-generated materials. Group-based materials support the cultural norm of Japanese society by allowing students to maintain equal status among their classroom peers (Anderson, 1993). Each student in the group is responsible for selecting a magazine or newspaper article to copy for other group members.

The objectives for this activity are to provide opportunities for students to improve reading, listening, and speaking skills. It also encourages student autonomy by allowing students to choose material that is interesting to them.

English use is also increased in class by placing restaurant-style table tents on each group's desk with useful expressions for use in group discussions. The expressions can be changed for specific language learning occasions (e.g., warm-ups, article discussions, general group work; see Appendix C for examples).

There were some difficulties implementing the Media Article Discussion activity throughout the academic year. Topic selection at the beginning was unlimited. This was beneficial for student motivation, but counterproductive for a group of female students, for example, who were not interested in a sports article introduced by a male student. In addition, some previously introduced topics were duplicated and created some boredom for students who had participated in the same type of discussion.

Chatting in English

After weekends, holidays, and vacations, the level of student energy can be quite high. However, this energy usually flows into students chatting *in Japanese* with their classmates. In order to turn this situation into English practice, students are given an example of useful expressions on the blackboard and five minutes at the beginning of class to chat with a partner about their own weekends, holidays, or vacations. Figure 3, shows an example.

Figure 3.
Example of chatting in English

A: Hey, how was your weekend?
B: Great/Fine/It was O. K./Lousy.
A: "Whaja" do? (What did you do?)
B: Nothin' much/I hung out at home and watched TV/I hung out with friends/I played tennis with my club. How 'bout you?
A: ...

The *Chatting in English* activity promotes English use in two primary ways. First, it takes what is usually a time for Japanese use and turns it into English use. Second, it serves as a reminder to the students that if they finish any activities early, they can chat not in Japanese but in English, especially when their teacher tells

them this explicitly with an encouraging "You've just shown that you *can* chat in *English*." This activity also promotes English use more traditionally by teaching pronunciation (relaxed pronunciation, such as "whaja") and vocabulary (teaching words that students often do not know, such as "lousy," and distinguishing between Japanese-style expressions like "play with friends" and English "hang out with friends"). It can still be difficult for some students to avoid chatting with their classmates in Japanese, but others make a real effort to chat in English while working in class.

Conclusion

This paper has provided some background on and various ideas for promoting English use in an EFL environment. It showed how the authors have implemented English-language-use policies (based on a program-wide participation grading policy, Appendix A) and activities in their classes to promote English use. As noted above, there can be some difficulties with these policies and activities. However, with these policies as the impetus and activities as the means, students can make themselves and each other more comfortable using English. This should lead to a positive feedback loop of increased use of English, increased confidence, and back to increased use of English. The next step is to investigate (a) what students can do to encourage each other to use English in class; and (b) to what extent and for what purposes students should be allowed to negotiate allowable L1 use in the EFL classroom.

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Appendix A

Program-Wide Grading System for Class Participation

Excellent 90-100% 27-30	The student speaks in class several times each day, almost always in English, without being asked to do so, offers his or her own opinion often, and willingly participates in conversation. He/she almost always comes to class prepared and helps to keep a lively discussion going, is attentive, listens carefully, asks relevant questions, and is a great asset to the class.
Good 80-89% 24-26	The student usually speaks in class, mostly in English, without being prompted and offers his/her opinion if asked to do so. He/she usually comes to class prepared, pays attention, and occasionally asks good questions that are helpful to the class.
Fair 70-79% 21-23	The student is somewhat reserved, seldom speaks in class, and then only if prompted or questioned. He/she speaks English in class only part of the time, usually only in structured practice, offers own opinion with difficulty, does not always pay attention in class, does not attempt to converse, seldom asks questions, and makes only a slight contribution to the class.
Poor 60-69% 18-20	The student speaks only when forced to do so and generally uses more Japanese than English in class. He/she is very reserved, withdrawn, does not follow class discussion, daydreams, has to be made to pay attention, rarely comes prepared, occasionally sleeps in class, will never offer an opinion, and makes no contribution to the class
Unsatisfactory 0-59% 0-17	Incommunicative—Unsatisfactory.

Appendix B

Class survey on the use of Japanese and English (with results)

(NO NAME, PLEASE)

As you know, Intermediate English I and II are conducted in English. In addition, part of your participation grade represents how much you use English (and not Japanese) in class.

However, there are a number of ways to get more English in class. To help us decide, please read the following statements and check (**A** or **D**) "agree" or "disagree" to show your opinions about the use of Japanese and English.

Results (N=131, from our six Intermediate I classes):

agree	disagree	GENERAL
12	*119*	1. Japanese people don't need to be able to speak English well.
130	*1*	2. Speaking English is useful when traveling outside of Japan.
130	*1*	3. I want to be able to have conversations in English.
115	*16*	4. I think I will speak with foreigners in English in my future career.
60	*71*	5. It's strange to speak English with other Japanese people.
114	*17*	6. I am not confident in my ability to speak English.
9	*122*	7. I don't like speaking English.
117	*14*	8. I can express my feelings better in Japanese than in English.
130	*1*	9. I want to improve my ability to speak English and to understand spoken English.
102	*29*	10. It takes too much time to say what I want to say in English.
80	*51*	11. When I can't express my ideas in English, I feel stupid.
79	*52*	12. I need to translate English into Japanese in order to understand the meaning.
95	*36*	13. Sometimes I can hear something in English and respond in English without translating to Japanese.
112	*19*	14. It's fun to express my ideas in English.

agree	disagree	CLASS
90	*41*	15. I want the teacher to force us to use English.
38	*93*	16. When my classmates use English, it's difficult for me to understand them.
28	*103*	17. Whenever we are in the classroom, even before class starts or after it ends, we should use only English.
93	*38*	18. When chatting with my classmates, I would rather use Japanese.

agree	disagree	GROUP WORK
82	*49*	19. If other classmates in my group were speaking Japanese, I think it would be difficult for me to speak English.
83	*48*	20. If other classmates in my group were speaking Japanese, I would feel uncomfortable asking them to speak English.
36	*92*	21. As long as my group's final answers are in English, I think it's ok to discuss in Japanese.

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Appendix C

Group work expressions

Figure C1. Useful expressions for general group work

Questions or Comments	Responses
I don't understand this, could you help me?	1) Sure, this is the answer. 2) Yes, how can I help you?
What are we supposed to do now?	I think we should finish the next task.
Should we ask the teacher for help?	Yeah, let's ask the teacher. Excuse me! Can you help us please?
Now I understand!	I knew you could get it.
Speaking English isn't so difficult after all.	No, it really isn't. In fact, it's rather easy.

Figure C2. Useful expressions for media article discussions

Answer These Questions	Additional things you can say
Do you agree or disagree with the writer? Why or why not?	1) No I don't agree because . . . 2) Yes, I agree because . . .
Is the article interesting? Why or why not?	I think (or don't think) the article is interesting because . . .
Does the article apply to you and your life? Why and how or why not?	This article applies (doesn't apply) to my life because . . .
Did you learn something new by reading the article? What did you learn?	I learned from this article that . . .

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Discourse-oriented Activities For Pronunciation Teaching

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Pronunciation teaching in Japan often uses activities where language is taken out of context—such as repetition of individual words or contrasting pairs of words. However, recent research on pronunciation pedagogy suggests that suprasegmentals (intonation, pauses, stress, rhythm, and linking) are more important to communication than segmentals (individual sounds). Furthermore, the most important aspects of intonation and stress are communicated in the context of a discourse. Thus, by teaching pronunciation through activities at sentence and discourse level, students will be better prepared to handle the listening and speaking skills needed to survive real world conversation outside of controlled classroom or language laboratory environments. We first discuss trends in pronunciation pedagogy, stressing research on discourse intonation and guidelines for communicative pronunciation instruction. Second, it demonstrates a procedure for adapting textbooks to include discourse-level pronunciation exercises that introduce suprasegmental awareness to Japanese false-beginner learners in secondary and university level EFL classes.

日本の発音教育は個々の言葉のくり返しや対の言葉の比較など，文脈から離れた活動を行うことがよくある。しかし発音教育における最近の研究では会話において超文節（抑揚，間，アクセント，リズム，リンキング）が，文節(個々の音節）よりコミュニケーションにおいて重要であることが示されている。さらに抑揚とアクセントの最も重要な面は文脈から伝わるのである。それ故，文や談話レベルでの練習による発音教育をすることによって，生徒はコントロールされた教室や LL教室の環境から出て，実際の会話に対応できるリスニングやスピーキングの力がつくようになる。この論文はまず，現在の発音教育について，特にデイスコース・イントネーションにおける研究とコミュニカティブな発音教育のためのガイドラインについて述べる。次に，高校・大学レベルの EFL でのいわゆるフォールス・ビギナーの日本の学習者に超文節に気付いてもらうために，どのようにテキストを談話レベルの発音練習に適応させるかを紹介する。

Introduction

Until recently, it was common for English teachers to focus mainly on the segmental level of pronunciation, such as "l" and "r", by using cassette tapes or choral repetition in class. The teacher periodically interrupts students to model sentences or words and listen to students' efforts. This is an example of "bottom up" methodology (Evans, 1993). The consequence of this attention to isolated words is students who are capable of repeating the necessary words or phrases in practice but are unable to transfer this skill when actually engaged in free conversation. Garant (1992) finds that junior high school students in Japan cannot recognize vocabulary words in different contexts, despite having repeated the word several times. Japanese students who merely imitate the teacher in form-orientated drills, without paying attention to meaning or content, are usually unable to carry over the newly learned patterns outside of the classroom (Evans, 1993). Such bottom-up methodologies have recently come under criticism for having little effect on

meaningful communication (Celce-Murcia, 1987).

In this paper we discuss current trends in EFL pronunciation pedagogy and describe discourse-oriented activities which emphasize suprasegmentals such as thought group phrasing, focus word stress and intonation, ending pitch and word linking. A procedure for adapting textbooks that do not currently incorporate suprasegmental instruction is explained along with examples of discourse appropriate for classrooms in Japan.

Discourse-oriented approaches to pronunciation teaching

Celce-Murcia & Goodwin (1991) favor teaching pronunciation through communicative activities because students frequently lose their skill when confronted with a communicative situation. Morley (1991) maintains that "a focus on meaningful practice and especially speech-activity experiences suited to the communication styles and needs of learners real-life situations" (p. 494) to be one of the guiding principles of current pronunciation pedagogy. Gilbert (1993) states:

> the most important functions of intonation in English are: (1) to show contrast between new information and old information, and (2) to show boundaries between thought groups. (p. 33)

Brazil (1994a, 1994b, 1997) describes a discourse intonation method which encourages students to examine the context of a situation before deciding on the pronunciation and intonation to be used. Within a discourse, the listeners can understand important points by distinguishing between "proclaiming tones" (falling) for new information and "referring tones" (rising) for shared/old information.

In analyzing Japanese problems with pronunciation, Riney & Anderson-Hsieh (1993) conclude that the first priority is practice at the suprasegmental level.

Figure 1 illustrates these levels of pronunciation (based on Evans, 1993 and Hinkelman,1995). Segmentals (phonemes, clusters, and syllables) are at the bottom of the diagram and are the focus of "bottom-up" pronunciation teaching approaches. Suprasegmentals (pauses, intonation, stress) are at the top of the diagram and are the basis of "top-down" pronunciation approaches. Other leading researchers in pronunciation pedagogy agree that suprasegmentals are underemphasized (Avery & Ehrlich, 1992; Gilbert, 1993; Celcie Murcie, 1987; Morley, 1991) that "meaningful practice beyond the word level" is necessary (Naiman, 1992); and that discourse level instruction is the priority (Brazil, 1997). Evans (1993) states that the order of pronunciation instruction should begin at the "top" with suprasegmentals and progress "down" to segmental practice at the end. Thus, discourse-oriented approaches have now gained considerable theoretical support. The next section examines how an instructor can implement these top-down strategies practically in the classroom.

Adapting textbooks for top-down pronunciation instruction

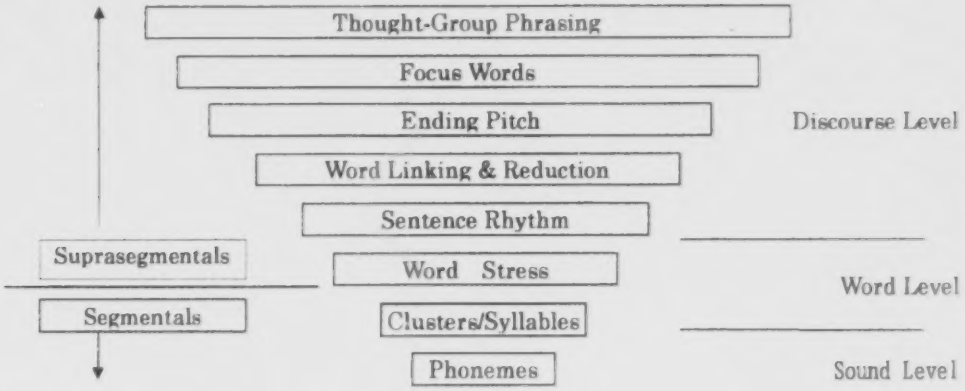
Oral communication textbooks often do not include explicit activities to practice any kind of pronunciation, let alone discourse-oriented pronunciation (Hinkelman & Halvorsen, 1998). In spite of this, instructors can easily adapt their current textbooks to add pronunciation activities that practice suprasegmentals in a top-down process.

Pause marking

To do this, first select a sample conversation from the textbook, focussing on a few sentences. Then, ask students to listen to the teacher or the tape of the conversation, marking the pauses they hear with a black slash on the text. After saying the sentences two or three times, have students compare their markings with a partner, then reveal the pauses intended by the speaker on the blackboard or OHP. Example 1 shows

pauses marked between sentence clauses and Example 2 has pauses marked between items in a list. In written conversations, commas and periods often indicate pauses, but not always, as shown in Example 3.

Figure 1: Levels of Pronunciation



Example 1 Hi John, / how was your vacation? /

Example 2 Great. / I went swimming, / camping, / and mountain climbing. /

Example 3 I stayed home / but I wanted to go skiing / or snow-boarding. /

Point out that pauses are used to separate thought groups and help the listener catch what is important. Have the students then practice the discourse orally, overemphasizing the pauses at first (mentally counting, "1, 2, 3", during the pause). Then ask them to mark longer conversations and compare the number of pauses they marked with the teacher's marks. This pause-marking process will help students be aware of the "highest" level of discourse as they move down to the next levels, concerning discourse intonation and stress.

Focus word marking

With visual cues, students can more easily adjust their voice to change pitch, rhythm, and stress. In addition to pauses, students can listen for focus words and circle them in another color. Focus words are usually key words that add new information or emphasize a contrasting point. Thus, they can only be determined in the context of a full discourse. They are characterized by a stressed syllable and a rising/falling intonation. The following examples illustrate some focus words.

Example 4

Person A: Nice to meet you.
Person B: Nice to meet you, too.
Person A: And where are you from?
Person B: I'm from the northern part of China.
Person A: Which part?
Person B: The northern part.

Ending pitch marking

The next step, marking the rising or falling pitch at the end of thought groups, is also not too difficult for beginning students. The teacher should first write and model a few easy sentences which show different pitch patterns. Ask students to guess the direction of the pitch change and then draw an arrow (in a different color to accentuate) at the spot in the sentence (see Examples 5-8). For more advanced classes, exceptions to these four basic patterns can be demonstrated and explained (see Brazil, 1997; Gilbert, 1993).

Word link marking

A fourth step in adapting a textbook dialogue is to mark reductions and linking between words in sentences. Read a dialogue or popular song and have students listen for words that are connected without breaks. Mark these with a loop in a different color as in Examples 9-12.

Example 5 Do you like this? ↗ (a yes/no question)

Example 6 Yes, ↘ I love fruit. ↘ (statements)

Example 7 What kind of fruit do you like best? ↘ (an open-ended question)

Example 8 I like apples, ↗ oranges, ↗ and bananas. ↘ (a series of answers)

Example 9 I'd like to make a reservation for a room.

Example 10 How much is it?

Example 11 Why did you give him the present?

Example 12 Do you know what time it is?

Beginning students may need links marked by the teacher. In more advanced classes, ask students to guess the rules. See Gilbert (1993) for an explanation of linking and reductions. All four of these activities need not be done for every lesson, but added at different points in lessons over the year.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have outlined how discourse-oriented activities to teach pronunciation might be introduced to beginning level classes in oral communication at universities and secondary schools in Japan. As current

textbooks do not reflect recent trends in pronunciation pedagogy, we suggested a procedure for incorporating tasks on phrasing, intonation, linking, and ending pitch. By teaching students to listen for pauses, focus words, ending pitch and word linking, teachers can adapt their current materials to top-down pronunciation methodologies that emphasize suprasegmental activities over segmental drills.

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Conversation Teaching Meets Discourse Analysis

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Focus on form can be a valuable part of language learning, but for conversation, the crucial question is "What kind of form?". In this paper, I briefly explore how discourse analysis can be used to provide labels for looking at conversation, and how these labels can be exploited in the classroom.

言葉を学ぶ上で，「言語構造に焦点をあわせる」ことは大切なことではあるが，会話を学ぶ場合，特に重要なのは「言語構造の種類」である。本稿では，どのように談話分析が使われるのか，つまり，談話分析によりどのように会話を細かく分析し，分類できるのか，また，どのように会話の分類を実際の授業に利用できるのかについて論じる。

Introduction

Very few people these days would argue that a professional athlete who watches video tape of their own performances or of experts in their sport is wasting their time. There is a great deal to be learned from this kind of analysis, not least because it relieves the athlete from the pressure of having to watch in real time. The tape can be stopped, re-played, or slowed. Even if the observations are in real time, an athlete, a commentator, or even a knowledgeable fan, with their practised eye, can notice and learn much more than could a watcher naive to the sport.

In language teaching the value of examples was long ignored, down-played or rejected. In recent years, however, the use of discourse samples has become more acceptable complex (in Business English and English for Academic Purposes, for example). Indeed, if Johnson's (1995) arguments for language to be treated as a skill are correct, and if the evidence for the necessary role of attention in learning from both psychology (Baddeley, 1990) and linguistics (Schmidt, 1990) is also correct, this recent acceptance is a step forward. Yet, even now, the idea of language learners as critical observers of language in use is not at all widespread. In conversation teaching, it seems to be a markedly restricted idea.

In learning to make conversation in a foreign language, learners are faced with a number of problems, but the two most formidable are: (a) the chance to experience and observe expert conversation; and, (b) the "attentional" tools to enable them to cease to be naive observers of conversation. To address the first problem, we simply need to make conversational texts, in both their aural and written forms, available to learners. To address the second, we need to help learners to pay attention to conversational texts and to different aspects of such texts.

Sources of texts

To provide learners with conversation texts, teachers have a number of options:

1) Many textbooks have tape scripts to accompany tapes. Even where tapescripts are not available in a students' book, publishers seem quite willing to allow photocopying of tapescripts from teacher's books, provided of course that the students are using the course book. The downside of this option is that many commercial materials are at best not authentic, and at worst unnatural: They do not offer good data for language learners.

2) Any person competent in English can make a tape of a conversation and then transcribe it. The conversations do not have to be 100% natural. They can be planned, but should not be scripted, unless the aim is to specifically look at the features of scripted conversation. Scripted conversations are usually different from unscripted conversations.
3) Students can record their own conversations and compare them to more expert examples.
4) Tapescripts from films and television programmes are possible sources, though teachers and students need to be aware if the materials were scripted.
5) Conversations can even be taken from novels. These obviously lack tapes; they are scripted and may be written to ends very different to creating examples of authentic-like conversation (Cheetham, 1997a). However, they can still be very interesting objects of study in a conversation class.
6) Finally, if the teacher has access to excerpts from conversation corpora, these can be very useful, though, of course, they will usually lack accompanying tapes.

In short, there is a wide range of choices, and the choice of text will depend upon availability and course aims.

Becoming non-naive observers

To help learners become less naive observers or conversation analysts is more difficult. There is an enormous literature on the analysis of conversation (Brown & Yule 1983; Coulthard, 1985; Levinson 1983; Sacks 1995; Tsui 1994), but the literature is very diverse. Unlike the grammatical models that pervade textbooks, there are no common standards and few commonly accessible tools.

A number of folk-linguistic terms such as "sarcastic," "polite," "slang," "humorous" are commonly applied to conversation. Other folk-linguistic terms include "promise," "suggest," and "disagree." Valuable though these labels may be, they are often difficult to apply to a text, and they are also frequently culturally bound. What's more, the range of terms is not comprehensive enough to allow the complete labelling of entire texts.

Other relatively more multi-cultural labels such as "question," "answer," and "information" have better pedagogic potential. Readers familiar with Discourse Analysis will be aware that "question," "answer" and "information" are folk-linguistic terms for the formal functional units of the Sinclair-Coulthard model of classroom discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Though not originally developed to describe free conversation, later adaptations of the model were (Burton, 1981; Tsui, 1994). As a result, it is possible to use a simplified version or adaptation (Cheetham, 1997b) for classroom use. One such taxonomy is outlined below.

Figure 1.
A short list of conversational functions

- **Q (question)** Language used to increase the asker's state of knowledge.
- **A (answer)** Language used to supply the knowledge requested in a question (or to show an inability to supply the knowledge "I don't know")
- **I (information)** Language used to change the state of knowledge of another.
- **Ac (accept)** Language used to show understanding or acceptance of a previous element (not necessarily agreement). The response to "I" can be "Ac" or the response to an "A" or an "R" (below) can be an accept. Accepts are often short,

formulaic, or repetitions of preceding material; words such as "uh huh", "mmm" and "yehr" are common accepts.

- **D (direct)** Language used to attempt to control the behaviour of another.
- **R (react)** Behaviour produced as a response to "D". If preferred, this can be subsumed under a more global "A".
- **(orientation)** Formulaic language used in response to specific situational/cultural norms. Greetings, Goodbyes, Happy Birthday, Merry Christmas, words said before eating, upon arriving home, and so on, if formulaic. Orientations usually occur in reciprocal pairs.

With just these seven elements, most conversation can be labelled, and learners can very quickly and easily acquire the means to talk and think about conversation in a less naive manner.

Example text and conversational analysis

The following sample stretch of conversation is a piece of naturally occurring discourse taken from the Birmingham University *COBUILD* database. It is quite simple and accessible for learners, but it nevertheless displays a wealth of conversational features that could be focused on to raise learner's understanding of conversation. The sample features a situation where two people are making an order in a restaurant (M=male, F=female, w=waitress).

Figure 2.
A conversational extract for sample analysis

1	M	And I wouldn't mind erm how do these actually come then? These, these
2	w	Come on their own.
3	M	Pardon?
4	w	These just come on their own and you choose the topping.
5	M	Oh right. Oh I see. Okay. So I choose a topping do I.
6	w	Uh huh. Small or large pizza?
7	M	Erm I'll have a small one please.
8	w	Uh huh. [pause]
9	M	With erm, erm prawns.
10	w	Mhm.
11	M	Prawns and erm tomatoes. [pause] Yeah that'll do yeah. Yeah.
12	w	Is there anything else you'd like? Garlic bread side salad?
13	M	Erm would you like a side salad?
14	F	I'll have a
15	M	Yeah.
16	F	side salad yes please.
17	M	Side salad yeah.
18	w	Two side salads yes.
19	M	Yeah.
20	F	Thanks very much.
21	w	Okay.
22	M	Thank you.
23	w	Thank you.
24	F	Thanks a lot. Do you want to take these as well.
25	M	Thank you.
26	w	Thank you.

Labelling the parts of this conversation is relatively easy, but not automatic. Learners might wonder about line 1, for example. Is line 1 a single question, or is it an uncompleted piece of **I (Information)** followed by a **Q (Question)**? There is no

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correct answer, but the close focus on the language needed to make a decision is likely to result in learning and in a better understanding of conversation. In line 3, learners can see how "Pardon?" as a question, can be used to challenge an unsatisfying answer, and to elicit a more detailed answer. In line 12, the waitress asks two questions. The second **Q** (**Question**) is a kind of repetition of the first, but is more finely focused. This is a common conversational technique, and is easily used as a target pattern for either written or spoken practice. There are many other points of focus that can come from this short selection: the use of "Thank you" as **Ac** (**accept**); the use of "Yeah, that'll do yeah. Yeah" (line 12) as two accepts produced by one speaker to close his own contribution; the following of one question by another (line 13); the use of discourse markers, and so on.

Applications

There are many different areas of discourse analysis, and in this paper I have focused on only one, a set of functional labels. Others that can be very useful are analysis of both lexical and phrasal repetition and analysis of discourse markers. The latter can be combined with the pedagogical model of conversation outlined in this paper. Here, discourse markers can be treated as sub-elements of the main elements listed. Analysis of script, lexical phrase, topic function and topic content are also possible. I have focused on this one analysis because it can be used as a descriptive skeleton upon which other analyses can form the flesh. It allows, in other words, a commonality of description and a framework for cross reference.

There are many ways that discourse analysis can be used to help the teaching of conversation. I have focused on analysis, as a form of consciousness raising and as an element of treating conversation as a complex skill. There are of course many different kinds of activity that can be based on that discourse analysis. There are, however, six general categories of activity that I have found to be useful. Space does not allow a detailed discussion, so I restrict myself to a simple gloss, and a brief rationale for each type.

1) Analysis

Labelling or identifying different parts of conversation; counting; calculating ratios; identifying patterns.

Rationale: i) Conscious raising as an element in skill learning (conversation as a skill); ii) As an attention directing technique (attention as a necessary or constructive element to learning).

2) Discussion

Discussion of appropriate labels; discussion of the uses of different elements or combinations of elements; discussion of options; relating these basic functions to other functions.

Rationale: i) Using conversation as a discussion topic (discussion as a communicative task); ii) Attention is a necessary preliminary to discussion.

3) Translation

Converting patterns of conversation to the home language; using introspective techniques to gauge the cross linguistic commonality of patterns and parts.

Rationale: i) Supplies an alternative translation parameter to the usual grammatical or lexical identity parameters; ii) Many socially functional elements, such as discourse markers and orientations do not translate directly and attempts at translation highlight this; iii) Patterns of conversation are often similar in different languages, and this (hopefully) facilitates skill transfer from the home language to the target language.

4) Reproduction

Taking patterns of conversation and using the pattern as a template for

learners to create their own interactions; spoken or written.
Rationale: i) Patterns give a significant amount of support for the learner, but still allow creativity and variation; ii) Repetition enhances learning; in this case the repetition is of patterns rather than of content; iii) Creative manipulation of language theoretically leads to "deeper" learning (Craik & Lockhart, 1972; Craik & Tulving 1975).

5) Re-organising
Taking texts and expanding or reducing them by adding, removing, or adapting conversational elements; a kind of editing process.
Rationale: i) Particularly useful where learners re-organise their own texts; a form of conversational re-writing; ii) Requires close attention to cohesion, coherence, and conversational style.

6) Metalanguage
Labels for conversational elements can be useful classroom tools; simply directing learners to start a conversation with a question, or with information, or asking learners to "Give a piece of information about ..." can be useful tasks.
Rationale: i) Facilitates organisation and implementation of activities; ii) Expands the number and type of easily available conversation exercises.

Conclusion
A focus on form can be very useful in language learning (Long & Crookes, 1992), either from a skills perspective or from an attention perspective. In this paper, I have presented a simple but versatile set of labels that can be applied to conversation, and suggested possible applications. There are many other options. The kind of application of discourse analysis that appeals to different teachers, materials makers and syllabus designers will depend upon their differing views of language learning. Whatever the background of the particular user, there are many ways in which discourse analysis can be usefully and successfully applied to conversation teaching.

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Are Japanese Weak at Grammar, too? A Look at Japanese Performance on TOEFL Section II

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Japanese TOEFL examinees have scored among the lowest not only in Listening and in Reading Comprehension but also in Grammar-oriented Section II, Structure and Written Expression. This paper aims to answer the question whether they were equally weak overall in the section or there were specific weaknesses to be found for Japanese examinees. As a result, the followings were identified as problematic points for more Japanese test takers: (a) singular/ plural distinction, (b) article use, (c) the choice and usage of prepositions, (d) the placement of the adverb with the "-ly" suffix, and (e) noun/adjective choice for modification. These weaknesses are likely caused by linguistic differences between Japanese and English, and may cause trouble in detecting sentence structure. Future research into the correlation between the results of this study on the grammar section of TOEFL (Section II) and the reading section (Section III) is recommended.

日本人は TOEFL スコアは "Listening", "Reading" のみならず，文法主体の "Section II, Structure and Written Expression" においても，ほとんど世界で最下位の成績である。この論文は文法分野での日本人特有の弱点となる分野，項目があるのかどうかを，1996年８月に実施された TOEFL の受験者2000人（日本人および非日本人）を対象に調査したものである。その結果，特に日本人受験者の得点が低かったのは，(a)数の一致，(b)冠詞，(c)前置詞，(d)様態の副詞の位置，および (e)名詞修飾のための名詞・形容詞の選択にかかわる問題であった。これらの問題点は，文章の構造を把握することを困難にすると考えられる。今後，TOEFL の文法分野の得点と読解力との関係を調べることが望まれる。

Grammar instruction through grammar translation dominates formal instruction of English as a foreign language (EFL) in the six years of junior and senior high school in Japan. Despite all the recent Ministry of Education emphasis on communicative competence and oral communication teaching for the high school English curriculum, grammar instruction is still favored over speaking and listening instruction. It would be therefore natural to assume that Japanese learners do better on English grammar tests than tests which measure listening and speaking skills.

However, the results of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) show that Japanese examinees' scores in the grammar-based Section II (Structure and Written Expression) are among the lowest of all test-takers from Asian countries (ETS, 1996, p. 6; *Keizai Kikaku-cho*, 1996, [Online]). These scores are also as low as in the Reading Comprehension section. Interestingly, Swinton and Powers (1980) suggested that Japanese test takers' poor TOEFL performance in Reading Comprehension be attributed to their poor competence in grammar. Their findings seem to contradict further the belief that Japanese teachers and administrators have about the students' English grammar competence. To clarify these contradictions, linguistic, instructional and educational, and environmental influences on Japanese learners will be discussed in relation to results obtained in the TOEFL Section II (Structure and Written Expression).

Subjects

Data from the August 3, 1996 TOEFL administration were provided by Educational Testing Service (ETS) in the form of 1,966 random samples in three groups: Japanese in Japan (JJ; *N*=1,000), Japanese taking TOEFL in North America (JA; *N*=175), and non-Japanese (NJ; *N*=821). The form for the test can be found in ETS (1997b, pp. 93-99). TOEFL Section II consists of 40 Multiple Choice (MC) items with four options. These 40 items are presented in two parts: Structure (15 items) and Written Expression (25 items). The last item in each part was considered experimental and not scored, leaving a total of 38 items for analysis and discussion in this study. Data analysis was conducted from the raw scores and individual item responses furnished by ETS.

The three groups showed contrastive characteristics in age, gender, test taking reasons, and prior TOEFL experience. Both the JJ and JA groups were younger than NJ (see Table 1). Young examinees aged below 22 comprised almost half of the Japanese groups. Such young examinees made up 30% of the NJ group (see Figure 1).

More female test takers were found in Japanese groups, particularly in JA (two-thirds female), while males and females were equal in NJ (see Figure 2). The gender balance for JJ was between JA and NJ. This is may be attributed to the higher percentage of graduate applicants in JJ than in JA. There were twice as many JA undergraduate as graduate applicants, which lowered the average age. NJ showed similar tendencies to JJ regarding test taking reasons (see Figure 3).

Table 1

August 3, 1996 TOEFL examinees statistics by age

	NJ	JA	JJ
N	821	175	1,000
Age Mean	25.2	23.0	23.4
Age SD	6.44	5.50	5.62

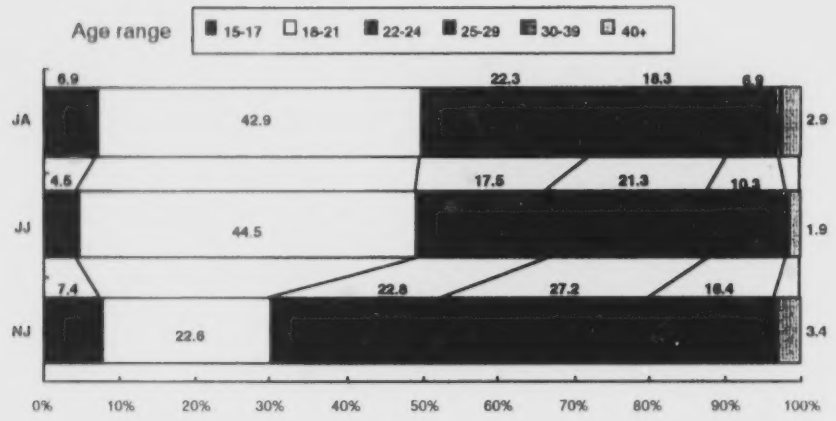

Figure 1. *Age*

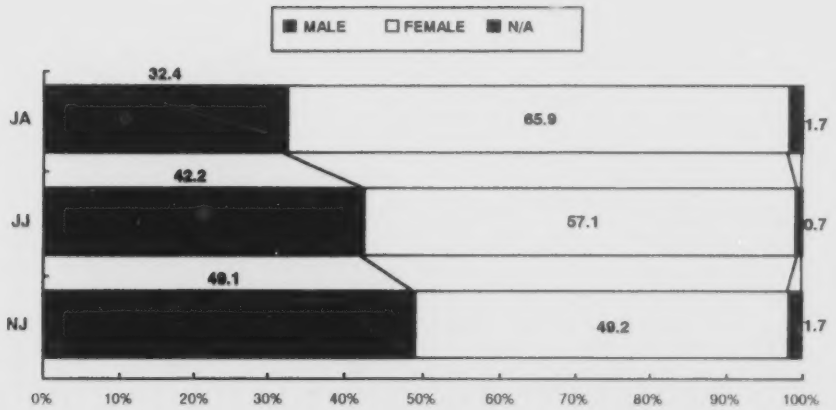

Figure 2. *Gender*

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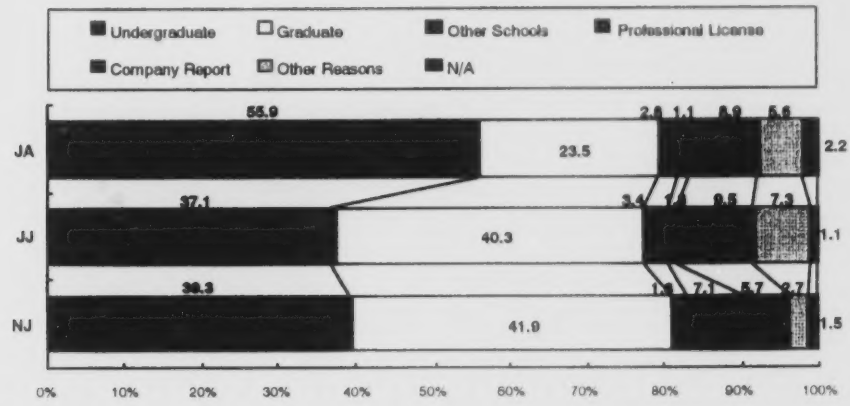

Figure 3. *Test taking reasons*

Repeater rates were much higher in the Japanese groups, particularly in JA. Twenty percent of JA were first-timers, while almost 40% of them had four prior TOEFL experiences. On the other hand, NJ's first timers made up 40% of the group, and less than 20% had taken the TOEFL four times previously (see Figure 4).

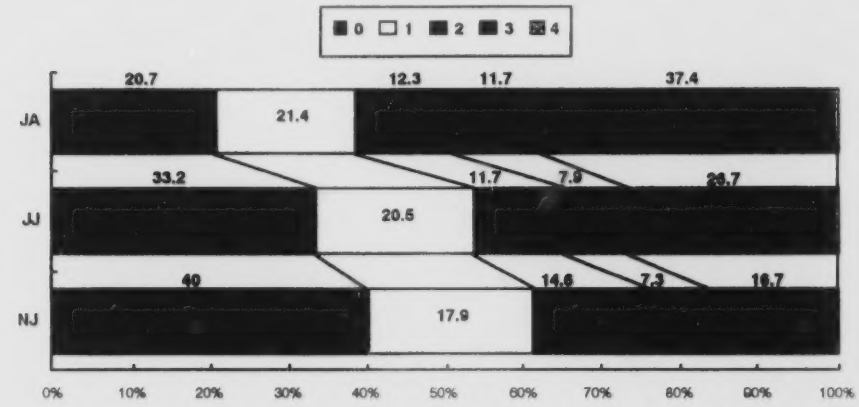

Figure 4. *Prior TOEFL experience*

Thus, Japanese groups included younger examinees, more females, and more repeaters. Most of the JA degree seekers were undergraduate applicants, with more experience in TOEFL test taking.

Descriptive statistics

Table 2 shows the lower mean scores of the Japanese groups compared to NJ ($p < .01$). K-R 20 (Kuder Richardson-20 test) and SEM (standard error of means) show the data were reliable. The K-R 20 values of the three groups for Section II are comparable to the data of ETS (1997c, p. 30), as are the SEM values (ETS's SEM for this section is 2.7).

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Table 2
Descriptive statistics of the three groups on TOEFL Section II (August, 1996)

	NonJapanese (NJ)	Japanese in America (JA)	Japanese in Japan (JJ)
N	821	175	1,000
k	38	38	38
	26.6*	23.9*	25.5*
SD	6.44	6.35	6.93
KR20	.86	.84	.90
SEM	2.41	2.54	2.19

(*$p < .01$)

where N = the total number of examinees for each group
k = number of items in Section II, Structure and Written Expression
= mean score (arithmetic average point based on raw scores)
SD = standard deviation
KR 20 = reliability index calculated on Kuder Richardson Formula 20
SEM = Standard Error of Measurement

Method

The methods of analysis used for this study were: (a) comparisons of item facility (IF) values and item discrimination (ID) values between groups, (b) descriptive item analysis, (c) analysis of distractors, and (d) item-test correlation. IF, ID, and the point-biserial correlation coefficient used for item-test correlation were all based on Brown (1996) as well as other statistical terms and calculations. A spreadsheet application software (Excel for Macintosh, v. 4.0) generated statistics based on the data provided by ETS.

Results

Linguistic influences

Linguistic influences for JJ and JA were identified in the following areas: (a) the location and order of adverbs of manner (with the "-ly" suffix); (b) distinction between a noun and an adjective for premodification; (c) article use; (d) prepositions; and (e) singular/plural distinction and subject-predicative agreement.

Location and order of adverbs with the "-ly" suffix

In a sentence with a pattern of "S+V+O," an adverb of manner frequently with an "-ly" suffix is placed after the verb and its object. This "rule" seems to be regarded as rigid and unchangeable, since many Japanese failed on such items that required knowledge about possible locations. Adverbs of manner can take almost any position in the sentence, according to the focus and relative weight of the adverb in the sentence, and the length and importance of the object(s). The second example in the below shows less emphasis on the manner compared to the first one:

(1) He drove the car *slowly* into the garage.
(2) He *slowly* drove the car into the garage.

(Both adapted from Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, p. 138)

Japanese showed lower performance on five items presenting this type of problem. Awareness raising concerning the location of adverbs is thought to be very important for Japanese learners to identify the sentence structure.

Noun/adjective choice for modification

Items which required examinees to distinguish between the noun modification and adjective modification of a following noun were found to be among the most difficult for nearly all levels of Japanese examinees in this study as identified by IF, ID, and item-test correlation, though the number of such items were only three.

Whether a noun is used as a modifier instead of an adjective is often a source of confusion. Take the word "education," for example, to show how a noun is used to modify other nouns. There are such phrases as "education system," "education problem," and "education cost" (*Asahi Shimbun*, 1996, pp. 238-234). "Educational system" and "educational policy" (Konishi (ed.), 1994, p. 569), and "educational cost" also exist and are used in the same meanings. It seems, though, that learners of English as a foreign language are told to memorize them as they are when encountered.

Little accountability, if any, of this "N+N" combination may only help develop learners' obedience to the text and discourage the motivated mind to diverge from the confines of translation and rote memory as the only means of learning.

Corpus building of noun premodification is proposed by presenting examples of adjective premodification and noun premodification focusing on the difference and similarity of the meaning. It should also be noted whether a singular or plural noun is used for noun premodification; for example, "Curriculum design and *materials* development in TESOL" and "International *Admissions* Officer." It will be beneficial to let students collect examples of noun premodification from various writings and various sources of information through novels, newspapers, journalistic writings, names for governmental departments and agencies, advertisements, and web pages. In so doing, students will become able to learn underlying rules of noun premodification.

Article use

Article use or omission was found to be more problematic for Japanese TOEFL examinees in this study. Japanese tended to depend on articles to figure out sentence structure. If a sentence came with no article, more Japanese made mistakes in identifying the sentence verb. On the other hand, when they could not find the wrong part of expression, their last resort was the existing article, as shown in six items. Teachers can invite students in their instruction to think about how a thing or material exists. Petersen (1988) presents an interesting error example of article use:

(3) *Last night, I ate *a chicken* in the backyard. (Petersen, 1988, p. 10).

Petersen says that this sentence could make sense if imagining a man in the dark backyard with chicken blood and chicken feathers around his mouth. Frequently found in English both spoken and written by Japanese learners, this kind of error can be traced back to the lack of articles in Japanese.

Preposition use

Prepositions attracted more Japanese than non-Japanese examinees when they were used as distractors, as identified by five items. An item with a "deferred" preposition showed a marked decline in Japanese responses. A "deferred" preposition is one whose object is placed prior to it because of a shift in the focus; it remains at the original location separate from the object, for example:

1. The gentleman you spoke *of* left her a big fortune.

Reliance on translation was identified as a possible cause in such cases, particularly because a deferred preposition does not appear in translation. Rather than promoting understanding through translation, teachers need to encourage a conceptual understanding and analytical knowledge of sentence structure.

Singular/plural distinction

The concept of singular/plural is missing in Japanese. This troubled Japanese examinees in identifying sentence structure, as evidenced by five items. When the sentence subject is remote from its verb or pronoun, more Japanese examinees were found to make wrong choices for a suitable verb or pronoun form. In other words, there were many items that required conceptual analysis of sentence structure on the basis of the singularity/plurality of a noun within particular sentences. This highlights the need for an understanding of the mechanism and principle of countability/uncountability, as shown in the following contrastive pair of examples:

5. of language.
6. He delivered *a* very imp *Speech* is the primary form ressive *speech*.

In sentence 5, "speech" is a concept of uttering sentences or expressing ideas using vocal cords. In sentence 6, however, it is an act related to a specific time and place.

Instructional and educational influences

Dependence on translation was broadly recognized in the item analysis and analysis of distractors. Rather than applying grammatical and syntactical rules for problem solving, students tried to detect structural and grammatical problems through translation. This tendency was clearly identified when a loan word was used as a verb phrase, although it would have been familiar in *katakana* as a noun (e.g., *campaign*, or キャンペーン).

Environmental influences

It is speculated that native-speaking environments do little to help students studying in English-speaking countries to acquire grammar, structural accuracy, and correct use of expressions unless those students are young or have a basic grammatical and syntactic understanding before they arrive in such countries. Since there were no data available on the proficiency levels that Japanese examinees in North America had before coming, nor on the length of their stay, no watertight conclusions can be drawn here. However, the larger number of frequent TOEFL test takers among JA may suggest that those low-proficiency adult learners had greater difficulty in learning grammatical features missing in Japanese.

Discussion

Japanese TOEFL examinees showed five principal linguistic weaknesses as discussed above. A lack of understanding of those points caused them trouble in identifying sentence structure. Low-performing examinees tended to rely excessively on translation. Lower-level performers are generally more influenced by linguistic differences between their first language and the target language, as Ryan & Bachman (1992) point out: "the influence of L1 is generally greatest at the initial stage of SLA, or at lower L2 proficiency levels, and likely to diminish as L2 proficiency increases" (pp. 23-24). The greater percentage of low-competence JA may suggest that they learn in an "acquisition-rich" environment with insufficient L2 proficiency to facilitate learning from their environment. Johnson and Newport (1995) show the relation between age of arrival in the US and L2 proficiency. This may indicate that such students came to the US or Canada to improve their English to the necessary level for college admission, as well as explain why young JA under age 17 performed very well on the test. Research on the effect of study-abroad programs shows that higher pre-reading/grammar competence leads to a better proficiency gain in the native-speaking country in all other skills (Brecht & Davidson, cited in Freed, 1995, p. 13). Further, Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsberg (1995), in their discussion of the level of adult learners benefiting from formal grammar instruction, conclude:

> Investment in grammar instruction in the early years of instruction may

> result in advances in speaking and listening skills at the upper intermediate and advanced levels. ... formal instruction in grammar can be seen as a one key element in producing expert language learners who will develop the independent capacity to gather and assimilate information and skills on their own through contact with native speakers. (pp. 59-60)

Thus, many Japanese TOEFL examinees in this study, especially many JA, did not have an adequate level of grammar competence to allow them to maximize what they could learn. As a result, these low performers tend to be overdependent on weak strategies such as direct translation.

Grammar learning is often met with antipathy on the learner's part. However, knowledge of grammar rules and control of grammatical structure still play a critical role in assessing proficiency levels (Hughes, 1989, p. 141).

Recommendations for Further Research

Recommendations for further research are as follows: (a) an investigation of the relationship between the TOEFL grammar section and the TOEFL reading section results for Japanese examinees, as suggested by Swinton and Powers (1980); and (b) research into the relationship between study-abroad experience/programs and grammatical competence prior to and after the experience.

The results of this study have identified discrete grammatical points problematic for Japanese examinees. However, as can be seen with questions of syntactic identification, discrete points are not separate but complex problems in actual language use. Thus, in order to reduce the heavy reliance on translation for understanding English, guided conceptual learning to help develop appropriate analytical skills and strategies should be encouraged.

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Gadgets and Gizmos: Gimmicks or Godsends?

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Recently, there has been increasing interest in learner autonomy and autonomous language-learning strategies. At the same time, microprocessor-based devices with potential language-learning applications (e.g., electronic dictionaries) are becoming cheaper, more powerful and more portable. Are these gadgets and gizmos, as some might call them, just gimmicks? Or are they godsends—potentially powerful tools for autonomous language learners?

近年，語学学習者の自主性も増加し，また自主的な語学学習のための戦術も増加してきている。同時に，語学習得を可能にするアプリケーションつきのマイクロ・プロセッサー仕立ての道具（電子辞書）も，より安価に，より効果的に，そしてより持ち運びの便利なものになってきている。これらのちょっとした便利な機械装置は，今までの気の利いた新案装置類のようにただの一時的な流行りで，やがて廃れていってしまうものであろうか。はたまた，もしかすると，語学習得のための自習用道具として強力な武器となるものであろうか。

Introduction

Recently, there has been increasing interest in learner autonomy and autonomous language-learning strategies. For example, there were eight presentations with the word "autonomy" or a synonym of it in their titles at JALT98. Only presentations offering the Holy Grail—"How to make your students talk in class"—formed a larger group. At the same time, hand-held electronic devices with potential language-learning applications (e.g., electronic dictionaries) are becoming cheaper, more powerful and more portable. Are these pocket-sized gadgets and gizmos, as some might call them, just gimmicks—here today and gone tomorrow, like the Tamagochi? Or are they godsends, learning tools with the potential to revolutionize autonomous language learning? In practice, their true worth probably lies somewhere between these two extremes, and, in this paper, we explore some of that area between disdain of new technology and manufacturer's hyperbole.

What is autonomous learning?

According to Little & Dam (1998), autonomous learning is a learning style that "grows out of the individual learner's acceptance of responsibility for his or her own learning" (p. 7). We feel that, as a consequence of accepting that responsibility,

autonomous learners would do at least some of the following:

- decide their own goals;
- decide how they will attain those goals;
- monitor and evaluate their own progress;
- actively seek out tools and methods which enhance their capacity to learn as efficiently as possible;
- accept that L2 study is a never-ending, never-perfect process.

The practical problem for prospective learners when they "seek out tools and methods" is that they face a bewildering array of study aids. Rather than let the tool dictate the method, students should decide their goals and methods first. An appropriate tool is almost certainly available.

Trends in gadgetry

While their memory capacities and processing speeds are increasing, nearly all microprocessor-based devices are becoming smaller, lighter, more standardised, and cheaper (see Table 1). However, are these trends necessarily good news for language learners?

Table 1 *Trends in gadgetry*

Decreasing:	
Size, weight	More portable, carry and use anytime/anywhere
Price	More affordable

Increasing:	
Memory capacity	More words, better definitions, example sentences, specialised plug-ins, etc.
Processing power	Ease of use (handwritten input, voice input), faster response
No. of features	Audible output (pronunciation models), word & spelling games
No. of products	Greater range of choice
Standardization	Interconnectivity with other devices, computers, Internet

Tape recorders/players

Tape-recorders were the size and weight of a suitcase full of bricks just two generations ago. Today, Sony Walkman-type personal cassette players small and light enough to slip into a shirt pocket are widely owned. Unobtrusive ear pieces have replaced bulky headphones. However, with no recording function they are limited to playing the audio tapes that accompany language textbooks, or other cassettes prepared elsewhere.

- Micro-cassette recorders can record and play back speech with adequate fidelity. They are small and light enough to use anywhere and anytime, e.g., to capture dialog from movies and TV, classroom interactions, or whatever the learner wants or needs to listen to again.
- A new generation of "Digital Memory Recorders" or "IC Recorders" based on Integrated

Circuit memory chips are now on the market (e.g., the Toshiba Voice Bar). Because they do not use tape they have no moving parts, are as light and slim as thick ballpoint pens, can store up to two hours' of sound, and provide instant playback of any segment of the recording.

The traditional way to review a recording, by rewinding the tape, is cumbersome and inaccurate, and risks stretching or breaking the tape. The memory chip avoids these problems, and enables the autonomous learner to review material as often as necessary for comprehension or memorization. Note that the sound quality of the smaller models may not be clear enough for some learners.

Electronic dictionaries and phrase books

- The earliest electronic bilingual dictionaries with one-word definitions—more of a liability than an asset to a serious language learner—have been superseded by devices which provide comprehensive definitions and usage examples. Some models even "speak" the displayed target language words, albeit with varying degrees of clarity (e.g., the Casio EX-Word Series)

- Many electronic dictionaries coming on to the market recently have new features such as word games, which can help users to memorize definitions and spellings (see Perry, 1998).

- Multi-language electronic phrase books, definitely a gimmick a few years ago, are becoming more comprehensive and practical (e.g., the Fuji Xerox Lyucho Series). Although designed primarily for tourists, some students may benefit from using one. We can't imagine a situation in which anyone would need the instruction "Take me to abroad" from the Seiko SD-5200 speaking dictionary. In any case, it may be instructive that this erroneous sentence is not only in the dictionary, but was also used in a photograph in promotional material (Seiko, 1998, p. 18). Fuji Xerox, however, show an understanding of their target market by including the example expression, "I left my bag here but it was gone when I came back" (Fuji Xerox, 1996, p. 7).

Input methods

The QWERTY keyboard is still the most common input method, but new devices featuring recognition of handwritten and scanned-in printed words (e.g., the Seiko Quicktionary) are already on the market.

- Voice recognition software for continuous text input is also available now; widespread practical implementation is "on the horizon." (Ryan, 1998)

Interfacing with the Internet

Whereas a desktop computer was needed to send and receive e-mail five years ago, we can now do it from a minuscule portable telephone. Students can stay in touch with their pen-pals overseas without using the college computer.

- Using a cellphone together with a tiny personal digital assistant (PDA) (e.g., the 3COM Palm Pilot or NTT Pocket Board), students can access the vast and ever-expanding language-study resources on the Internet (see Sperling, 1998) from almost anywhere, at anytime.

Summary

Modern technology offers a panoply of resources to help foreign language students study where and when they choose. We feel that some of the microprocessor-based

devices now available could be powerful tools for those students who are comfortable with the autonomous learning style (i.e., not all students). Perhaps some devices would also be useful to students who prefer teacher-centered learning. Whether a particular device is worth the price is a decision that, rather like choosing a paper dictionary or textbook, ultimately has to be made by the students themselves. We believe that at least the teacher can make students aware of what is available.

Focus on paper vs. electronic dictionaries

Despite having the same fundamental content and function, paper dictionaries (PDs) and electronic dictionaries (EDs) are utterly different in most other ways, notably cost, weight and look-up speed.

We looked at several widely available PDs (English-Japanese and Japanese-English, either as a single book or a pair of books), and EDs (excluding those with data on CD-ROM, speech functions, and other extras). We compared the ratios of their contents, counted as the number of headwords, to weight and cost.

Number of words per gram (survey average)

The paper dictionaries surveyed have an average 285 words per gram, while the electronic dictionaries surveyed have three times that ratio, an average 881 words per gram.

Number of words per yen (survey average)

The paper dictionaries surveyed offer buyers an average 37 words per yen, while the headwords in the electronic dictionaries surveyed are just over three times as expensive—an average of only 13 words per yen.

Direct content comparison

The above figures are, however, the averages of a rather randomly-chosen survey sample. One direct comparison that we can make is perhaps even more revealing. The headwords and definitions in the Seiko TR-7700 ED are taken from Kenkyusha's *New College Dictionary*, but marketed in a device one eighth of the weight of the traditional paper form, at just over five times the cost. Note that the Seiko ED also contains the content of *Roget's Thesaurus II*.

Look-up speed comparison

Another factor we investigated was look-up speed: Is an electronic dictionary (ED) in fact faster to use than a paper dictionary (PD), and if so, just how much faster? We assumed that look-up speed is important for two reasons: First, anything that impedes the learner's efficiency also detracts from their overall motivation to continue the search. Secondly, when listening to some form of spoken input (such as a conversation or lecture) and using a dictionary at the same time to look up unknown words, the faster definitions can be found the more quickly the student can stay with the flow and thus decipher the contextual meaning.

In an informal experiment, a group of 23 students looked up the definitions of a list of 10 English words using Casio EX-Word EDs, while another group worked on the same list using a variety of PDs. The two groups then exchanged dictionaries and repeated the exercise. We found that the look-up speed of the ED group in both cases was about 23% faster—a significant difference if speed is an important factor.

How many students already own electronic dictionaries?

A survey of our students at Kyoritsu Women's University and College showed that between 10% and 12% of students own an ED. Owners' feelings about them cover a spectrum of emotions, from "I never use it" to "It is my good friend," with several students expressing frustration at the inadequacy of the word definitions.

Looking to the future

Producing meaningful translations of natural language by computer without human editing is still in the future. Furthermore, it is not possible, using current technology, to miniaturise the computing power needed for

machine translation into a portable device. Nonetheless, advances in artificial intelligence and supercomputing are making fully automatic machine translation practicable for some limited applications, and the vast resources of the Internet are becoming more accessible every month. Within the foreseeable future, almost instantaneous translating and interpreting services could be available to anyone willing to pay the fee, from anywhere on the planet. When this happens, many language teachers may find themselves not just renegotiating their roles, but actually looking for different jobs.

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Classroom Activity: Learning Strategies Report

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This research explores factors which contributed to successful learning in the Japanese introductory course at the University of Sydney. On the basis of analyses of student data collected in 1996, procedures specifically for reading and writing Japanese script were developed and integrated into the above course as an intervention study throughout 1997. The research specifically focused on providing learning strategies, time management instructions and an enjoyable anxiety-free learning environment in order to increase the success rate.

One of the intervention techniques, *Learning Strategies Report*, was a classroom activity. The aim was to provide learners with opportunities to discuss their learning strategies, problems and its solutions, and consequently to enhance learners to use more effective strategies. The effectiveness of the *Learning Strategies Report* is described and discussed along with a consideration of the qualitative and quantitative results. The number of unsuccessful learners in 1997 significantly decreased compared to 1996.

シドニー大学日本語学科初級コースにおいて，いかなる要因が学習者の成功に大きく影響を及ぼすかについての研究調査報告である。特に日本語漢字の読み書きという分野に焦点をおき，1996年に収集した学生のデータを分析し，それをもとに，種々の教材や教育方法を考案した。1997年，上記のコースにて，それらを通年で実施した。この研究では，履修者数向上を目的とし，学習ストラテジー，時間管理の練習，また，心配や不安のない，楽しい学習環境設定に特に重点をおいた。1997年に実施した教育

方法のひとつ，「学習ストラテジー・レポート」はクラス活動である。目的は，学習者に，学習方法，問題点とその解決法を話し合う機会を提供し，より効果的な方法で学習できること，さらに学習者の意欲を高めることに置いた。「学習ストラテジー・レポート」活動がどのような効果があったか，アンケートによる学習者の感想並びに成績結果を分析し，まとめ，報告している。ドロップ・アウトを含めた不合格者数については，1997年では1996年に比べて著しく減少した。

Introduction

The context of the research reported in this paper concerns factors which contribute to successful language learning, specifically focusing on learning strategies instructions, time-management practices and student motivation levels. The project considered aspects of acquiring *Japanese* as a second language, particularly reading and writing Japanese script.

Approximately 130 students each year enrol in the introductory first year Japanese course at the University of Sydney. Although a majority of the students study with diligence, many students leave the course along the way and others fail. Approximately only one half of the students passed the course in 1995. Regretfully, the rest of the students became unsuccessful learners. The main aim of this project was thus to increase the success rate through integrating several intervention techniques. In this paper, I describe the development and the implementation of one of the intervention procedures, as well as evaluate the outcome of the application.

Two types of learner

Written Japanese uses three types of symbols. It is necessary to master these to be a successful student at the University of Sydney. As Japan adopted its writing systems from China, the characters and the meanings of both script are quite similar. Students who have a background of Chinese characters thus, have a prior knowledge of Japanese script from the outset. Conversely, western students, who have no background of Chinese characters, are exposed for the first time to learning characters. This appears to be considerably hard. The two types of learners in the introductory course are styled Group A (with background knowledge of Chinese characters) and Group B (without such a background).

Intervention study

The project focused on three factors, which were: (a) learning strategies, (b) time-management skills, and (c) motivation levels. Student data were collected throughout 1996. On the basis of the analyses of the data and the results of reviewing studies, several intervention techniques, *Learning Strategies Report, My Goals and Success, Exercises and My progress,* and *Fumie Kato's Homepage,* were developed and prepared for students in 1997. These techniques were incorporated into the script classes as an intervention study throughout 1997 in order to see if outcomes could be improved.

Learning strategies instruction

The research reported in this paper specifically focused on learning strategies instruction. Differences between the two types of learners noted above were also highlighted. One of the important issues in providing learning strategies instruction is "raising awareness of a learner's strategy repertoire and consideration of the way in which he or she uses those strategies" (Rubin, 1994, p. 2). As one example in raising awareness, Rubin (1994) introduced activities such as reading a book, discussing what they understood in a small group, making a list of problems and discussing again how they could solve the problems. Meyers & Jones (1993) argue that small group activities (four to six participants per group), in which students will share their ideas and learn from each other, are

beneficial for creating an active-learning classroom.

Learning strategies report

A classroom activity, *Learning Strategies Report* (LSR), was designed and implemented as a learning strategies instruction during 1997. The purpose of the LSR activity was thus to allow students to:

1. talk with classmates;
2. recall the strategies used in learning script;
3. exchange/share the information on the strategies which classmates used;
4. identify problems;
5. consider solutions to the problems; and
6. consequently, motivate learning Japanese effectively, enjoyably and collaboratively.

Students in the script classes formed small groups each containing four to six students. One *encourager* and one *recorder* was selected in each group each time and had a specific role, i.e., making sure everyone contributes (*encourager*), and recording minutes (*recorder*) in a LSR sheet (see Appendix 1). The LSR activity was implemented into the scheduled script class-hour for 10 minutes each, three times in the first semester and once in the second semester in 1997.

Learners' perceptions

Comments on the LSR activity were collected through two questionnaires conducted at the end of the first and the second semesters in 1997. The student comments were analysed with use of *Grounded Theory Methods*.

A causal condition was to conduct the LSR activity within the script class-hour. Four aspects of properties of the causal condition were identified as follows: (a) discussing with classmates, (b) identifying problems, (c) solving problems, and (d) improving learning strategies. Student general views on the LSR were firstly described in accordance with the above four properties, followed by the differences between the two types of learners. Actual student comments are presented in italics below.

Discussing with classmates. The LSR was *beneficial* because it provided *the opportunity to discuss/communicate with other people, to exchange ideas, to exchange learning experience* and also *to discuss my problems or solutions with my classmates.* Through this activity they had *interaction instead of working individually.* Without this, *people didn't know each other.*

Identifying problems. Through the discussions many students *realised others have the same problems as me!* and knew that *other classmates were having some difficulties too.* This appeared to be some type of relief to *find that you are not alone in the areas you are having problems. Identifying problems* through this kind of discussion *is worthwhile,* and *the LSR helped us to realise our problems easily.*

Solving problems. After students identified problems, they continued to discuss/*exchange ideas on how to learn script, to discuss how to get through these problems* and *common problems encountered that can be solved at this time.* Students were interested in knowing how other classmates solved their problems.

Learning strategies. Through the above activities, students learned new ways of solving problems, along with *other learning strategies.* The LSR activity was helpful to *see how other students were going and what methods of learning worked best for us,* and *to introduce new ideas that may help my learning.* The LSR *provided us with many different ways of learning Japanese* and also *an opportunity to compare & contrast my learning strategies.*

Consequently approximately 60 to 70% of Group B and 50% of Group A students viewed the activity of the LSR as *excellent strategies* for them.

Some students did not find the LSR

activity useful. The main reason was that students are already *set in my own ways of studying* and *have worked out my own strategies for learning script,* and hence *never changed my strategies for learning due to these reports.* This was because *everyone has different ways of learning.* In terms of the effectiveness, although students identified problems, *the effectiveness in solving the problems are not that good* and *not everyone knows how to improve the situation.* Obviously students who did not have any problems viewed it as *a waste of time.*

Differences between groups A and B

More students in Group B (84% in Semester 1 and 71% in Semester 2) than in Group A (73% in Semester 1 and 65% in Semester 2) recognised the usefulness of the LSR activity in learning Japanese script. A list, which displayed student views on the LSR together with the two groups (see Appendix 2), clearly indicated two different issues between the two groups. These were (a) "discussion" and (b) "learning strategies."

The LSR activity provided students in both groups with some kind of relief through clarifying that they were not alone with their problems. In particular, Group B students favoured the LSR, valuing it more than Group A students as a way to improve their own strategies. Many comments on "Discussion" in a subcategory of the context of phenomena were found for Group B, whereas there were no comments under this subcategory for Group A students. This suggests that Group A students appeared not to appreciate the opportunity for discussion as much as Group B students.

Learning Strategies

More comments were also found within another subcategory, "learning strategies," for Group B than for Group A, e.g., it was *excellent to find new ways to tackle difficult learning areas, to learn ways to overcome problems,* etc. Obviously, Group B students appeared to have problems and difficulty in learning Japanese; thus they requested that *it would have been better to have at least one of these earlier on in the course, better sooner, it's a shame there isn't time to do it more often.* However, as Group A students had already acquired the knowledge of the characters *per se,* their need to know the learning strategies were much less prominent than Group B students.

Outcomes of the intervention study

Kanji Learning Methods

Four questionnaires, which inquired about "kanji learning methods," were used for analysing the quantitative results. These were administered at the end of the first and the second semesters once each during the two years. Three factors (*Writing methods, Using cards/books methods, Using sentences methods*) within the kanji learning methods were identified through principal component analysis. To investigate the differences of patterns and tendencies of kanji learning methods between the two years, a profile analysis with three levels of variables (within) and two levels of years (between) was performed.

The F ratio for the tests of parallelism in Group A was significant in Semester 1: F (2, 222) = 2.54, $p < 0.1$, and the test for overall differences between years was also significant throughout the year: F (1, 111) = 3.43, $p < 0.1$ and F (1, 106) = 5.36, $p < 0.05$ in Semesters 1 and 2 respectively. The profiles in Group B deviated significantly in Semester 1 from parallelism: F (2, 168) = 5.45, $p < 0.01$.

These results indicate that students in 1997 used significantly different methods from students in 1996 in Semester 1. In Semester 2, differences of kanji learning methods only in Group A showed as significant between the two years.

The mean scores (M) and the standard deviations (SD) of the three factors are shown in Table 1 and the items in Appendix 3.

Table 1. Mean scores and standard deviations of three factors in semesters 1 and 2 in 1996 and 1997.

	Semester 1								Semester 2							
	Group A				Group B				Group A				Group B			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
	1996		1997		1996		1997		1996		1997		1996		1997	
Writing	2.9	0.9	3.1	0.8	3.4	0.8	3.2	0.6	2.7	0.7	3.0	0.7	3.1	0.6	3.3	0.7
Using Cards/Books	2.3	1.1	2.7	1.0	2.1	1.0	2.6	1.1	2.5	1.0	2.9	0.9	2.7	1.2	2.9	1.0
Using Sentences	3.9	1.0	4.0	0.9	3.6	1.0	3.7	0.8	3.7	0.7	3.9	0.7	3.8	0.5	3.7	0.7

Graphs were drawn using the above data in order to determine to what extent differences existed between students in 1996 and 1997 (see Figure 1). It indicated that students in 1997 appeared to use kanji learning methods more frequently than students in 1996, specifically the students in Group A in 1997 who appeared to use the strategies much more in all aspects of the three factors throughout the year than students in 1996.

In comparing group level, students in Group B used the strategy of *Writing Methods* in learning kanji more frequently than students in Group A. It is understandable that students without a background of Chinese characters (Group B) studied harder using the *Writing Methods* rather than Group A students (with a knowledge of Chinese characters).

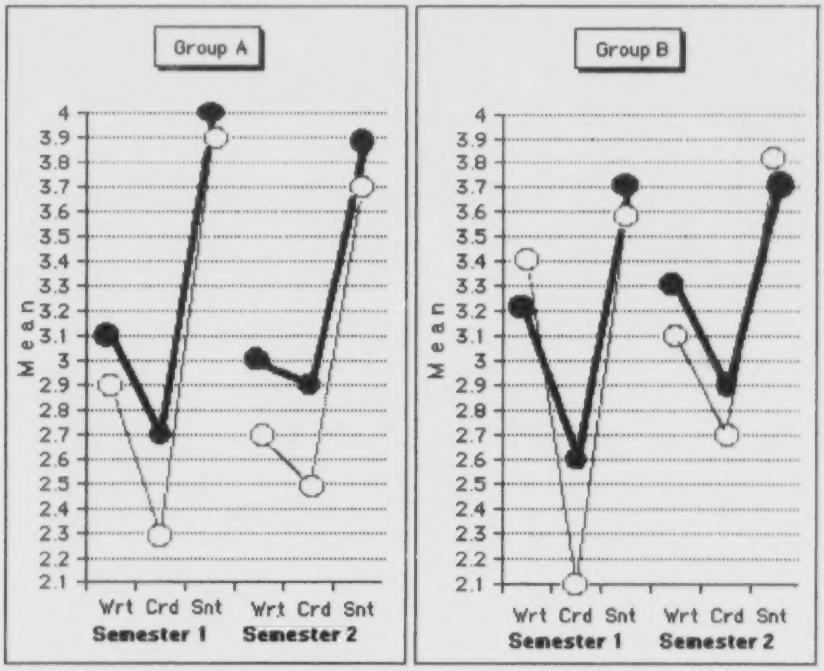

Figure 1. Profiles of Kanji Learning Methods for Groups A and B
Legends. O—O 1996, ●—● 1997
Notes. Wrt - *Writing Method*, Crd - *Using Cards/Books Method*, Snt - *Using Sentences Method*

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Successful and unsuccessful learners
Successful learners were those who completed and passed the course. The group classified as unsuccessful learners comprised students who dropped out of the course, did not take the examination or were assessed as *Fail*. Student numbers of successful and unsuccessful learners were compared and contrasted between 1996 and 1997. The sample size in total was 259 students for both years. Table 2 shows student numbers for those who dropped out, failed and thus were classified as unsuccessful learners in the course in both years

Table 2. Sample size, student numbers of dropped-out, failures and thus were classified as unsuccessful learners.

Year	*N*	Drop-out	Fail	Unsuccessful
1997	134	33	4	37
1996	125	38	12	50

A 2 x 2 chi-square analysis was performed investigating the effects of the intervention study in 1997. The obtained $\chi^2 = 4.23$, $df = 1$ was significant at the .05 level, suggesting that students who dropped-out, failed and thus were unsuccessful in 1997 significantly decreased as compared to students in 1996.

Summary
Analysis of data collected from the students in 1996 was used to design and develop four intervention procedures which were used with the 1997 students in an introductory Japanese first-year course at the University of Sydney. This paper specifically focuses on one classroom activity, *Learning Strategies Report,* as a means of learning strategies instruction. The results of the technique illustrated how the activity affected the students' use of strategies in learning script.

Analysis indicated that students in 1997, specifically Group B students who needed substantial assistance in learning Japanese script, greatly benefited from the LSR activity. The intervention procedures improved kanji learning methods for students in both groups and consequently increased the success rate, suggesting that providing learning strategies instruction was one of the important factors influencing student achievement in learning basic Japanese.

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Appendix 1
Learning strategies report

Learning Strategies Report

Date:_____ **Group:**_____

Student Names: _____(Encourager)
_____(Recorder)
_____
_____
_____

Learning strategies used last week:

1) ***How did you learn Japanese script last week?***

2) ***What problems do you have? Please write, if any.***

3) ***What suggestions can you provide in order to solve the above problems?***

Appendix 2

Student views on LSR in 1997

G	+ -	S1 S2	*n*	Reaction (no adverb)	Content of Reaction: (Sources: Two Questionnaires and Interviews)
A	+	73%	64	good, all right, good education, a good idea, a great idea, important,useful good method	**Same problems:** realising others having same problems, finding out I'm not alone in the areas having problems, seems there's a lot of problems and difficulties **L.S:** learning from one another how to improve our J. learning skills, recognising my problems, introducing new ideas, referring to see how I can change to other's L.S if I have trouble, highlighting any problems that others may have encountered and bring my attention to how they solve it, knowing other S' L.S but one must know what is the best for oneself when they study **Environment:** I like the freindly environment, people didn't know each other (*except this opportunity)
	+	65%	48		
B	+	84%	45	good, good opportunity, a good idea, helpful, useful, constructive, interesting, beneficial, excellent strategies	**Discussion:** opportunities to discuss with others, exchanging ideas how to learn script and discussing how to get paned the problems, exchanging learning experience, discussing my problems or solutions with others, communicating with others and finding out how they learned, being able to talk with others, having interaction instead of working individually, ascertaining the level as which others are progressing & common problems that can be solved at this time, **Same problems:** realised that most S faces the same problem/difficulties, identifying problems and knowing I'm not the only one who has problems, discussing and seeing if we had common problems, realising our problem easily, nice to know others were also stressing out, **L.S:** finding out how others' are learning, finding new ways to tackle difficult learning areas, trying other L.S, seeing how others are going and what methods of learning work best for them, learning other's L.S to improve my own, providing us many different way on learning J., comparing & contrasting my L.S with others, one of the suggestion really helps me, learning ways to overcome problems, learning how to study J. more effectively, as a guide, knowing other's strategies in studying that we might follow **Environment:** making the class closer, little contact with others doing J. (*excepting this), like speaking to fellow learners of J. **Request:** having at least of these earlier on in this course, a shame there isn't time to do it more often, better sooner
	+	71%	38		
A	-	22%	64	not necessary, not so useful, not true, not helpful	**Own Way:** other's L.S do not affect on me, different people have different learning habits, everyone has different way of learning **Time:** do outside class time, too much discussion in class, not enough time to really discuss, If I don't (*have trouble), this is painless and a waste of time **Others:** only good friends communicate with one another, effectiveness in solving the problems is not that good, not everyone know how to improve the situation, too much discussion about that in class
	-	25%	48		
B	-	11%	45	not helpful	**Own Way:** never change my L S, work out my own L.S, did not use it, people use different L.S to suit them, set in my own ways of studying (which is probably disadvantageous) **Time:** most Ss found it a waste of time **Others:** a bit more structured, that's good if it's helpful to the teachers
	-	16%	38		

Notes. L.S.R - Learning Strategies Report, S1 - Semester 1, S2 - Semester 2, J. - Japanese, + - Agree, - - Disagree, * - Inference made by researcher Ss - students, L.S, - learning strategies, G - Group, *n* - student number

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Appendix 3
Items including three factors in kanji learning methods

Writing Methods

1. I write each kanji 20 to 30 times.
2. I write them repeatedly until I memorise them.
3. I write down all kanji I am studying once a day.
4. I learn kanji for about 20 minutes per day.
5. I write kanji and repeat it after a few hours.
6. I use the origin section on the computers in the computer lab.
7. I try to find some associating pictures/keywords for memorising.
8. I test myself on writing without looking at them.

Using Cards/Books Methods

1. I make small cards and read them whenever possible.
2. I practise with Japanese books.

Using Sentences Methods

1. I apply kanji to sentences.
2. I write sentences, check the unfamiliar kanji and then read the sentences.
3. I do exercises on the computers in the computer lab.

Designing and Using Tasks to Promote Optimum Language Development

Jane Willis, Aston University

多くの教員がタスク・ベースト・アプローチが学習意欲や英語使用の動機を高め，既習の言語知識の活用を促進し，その上に新たな言語知識を構築することに効果があることを認めている。本稿をもとにした JALT98 のワークショップではタスク・ベースの学習とは何か，その種類と枠組みを示し，トピックの選び方，プレ・タスク・アクティビティーとその使い方，発話されたタスクの録音の仕方などタスク・ベースの学習を行うにあたって重要な項目について探究した。全体論的なタスク・ベースト・アプローチを行えば，各状況における言語活動を活発に自信を持って行なえるような言語使用者を育てることができるのである。

Introduction

Task-based learning (TBL) offers a change from the grammar practice routines through which so many learners in Japan have previously failed to learn to communicate. It encourages learners to experiment with whatever English they can recall, to try things out without fear of failure and public correction, to take active control of their own learning, both in and outside class. A TBL framework also provides a natural context for conscious study of language form.

An effective communication task used as a central component of a TBL lesson can encourage even shy learners to recall and put to use whatever English they already know in order to achieve the task outcome.

Tasks of many types can be designed around any topic or theme and can be adapted for any level of learner.

Overview

In our workshop in Omiya, we began by agreeing on definitions for the terms *task* and *TBL* and I offered a brief rationale for the use of TBL. I gave an overview of six different designs of task, with illustrations for each. Participants then divided into groups according to the age and needs of their learners and selected a topic that they might use with their classes. Each group then began the process of designing a set of tasks on their topic, evaluating them and then reporting back their best ideas to the whole group. This article will follow the order of the workshop proceedings.

What do we mean by "task"?

We defined *task* as a goal-oriented communication activity with a clear purpose. Doing a communication task involves learners in achieving an outcome, creating a final product that can be appreciated by others. They are exchanging real meanings for a real purpose, expressing what they want to say, making free use of whatever words or phrases they already know in order to fulfil the task.

Tasks in this sense would not include acting out dialogues or role plays using pre-set language patterns or given forms—these would be called "language practice activities."

A framework for using tasks

The framework here can be adapted for different kinds of classes:

Pre-task

Task - Planning – Report

Language Focus

This allows teachers to set up tasks in the classroom so that students will get the most out of task-based learning. In any task cycle there needs to be a balance of *confidence-building fluency activities* where mistakes do not matter, (i.e., when students do the task in the privacy of groups or pairs), and *linguistic challenge,* where accuracy and fluency are both desirable (i.e., the public report phase). When reporting on their task, students naturally want to be accurate since they are "going public," i.e., talking or writing for a wider audience. The Planning component in the task cycle bridges the gap between private task and public report, and gives learners time to work out how to say things better, with teacher and dictionary support. This planning stage is one of the richest learning opportunities in the cycle as students work to improve the quality of their own output, to prepare for reporting back.

The task cycle obviously needs to be preceded by a Pre-task stage so that learners know what they are going to talk about and what the goals of the task are. This gives the teacher a chance to chat about the topic and to highlight relevant words and phrases, and perhaps even demonstrate a similar task.

The task cycle is followed by a close look at the language arising out of the task or the text—samples of known or new grammar patterns, common phrases, discourse signals, words in context. This gives learners a chance to notice new things about language, to write down expressions they like, new words and the phrases they are used with and examples of grammar patterns. They can ask questions about the language and look things up in dictionaries. They can consolidate and systematise what they know already.

This framework was more fully described in Willis (1998).

Why task-based learning?

Task-based learning, used as outlined above, aims to create opportunities for language use, to help students activate whatever language they know already, and to discover for themselves what other language they need to learn. If students know what they lack, they are more likely to look out for these meanings and forms in the input they are exposed to. Ideally this input would include both spoken and written exposure. The processes involved in task-based learning stimulate natural, organic language acquisition. Ellis (1997) summarises the research on this in far more detail than is possible here.

Many teachers have found that doing tasks often increases learners' motivation to learn and use the language. They also find that a task-based approach is more suitable for mixed ability classes than direct grammar teaching, since it allows individual learners to operate at their own linguistic level, and to build on what language they have already, no matter how little this is.

Topic choice

Any topic or theme can generate many different types of tasks. However, broad topics such as *pollution, clothes* or *weather* are more effective if narrowed down and made more specific (except perhaps when designing very simple tasks for low level classes). For example, instead of *weather*, most learners will probably find topics like *extremes of weather* or *storms* more stimulating. Sometimes an interesting text will supply a good angle on a topic, like the text chosen by Dave Willis for JALT97 about the child with a pistol who raided a sweet shop. From this text, you could broaden out into the topic of "kids crime" or narrow down on to "punishment for

children."

Topic choice will depend on the backgrounds and needs of the learners. For teenagers, you might choose *dating*, or *getting a part-time job*. In the Middle East, teachers chose topics such as camel *racing*, *hospital ward design* and *the Dubai Shopping Festival*. At JALT98, groups chose a wide range of topics, including *governments, preparations for winter, and effective business meetings*.

Classifications of task types

I felt teachers needed a classification short enough to hold in the memory, and yet be highly generative. I finally found a breakdown of task types designed by a group of teachers, Matthews, Francis and Bain, (1987), who were working together to design materials to improve the communication skills of native-speaker children and young adults. It took into consideration the main cognitive processes needed for the tasks.

My classification is an adaptation of theirs. It does not claim to be exhaustive. And some tasks may well involve a combination of more than one type. Its aim is to help teachers generate a range of tasks on any topic, and then select the best ones to trial and include in course materials.

Six types of task

In the workshop, we first looked at this overview of task types, and I illustrated its use with the topic of CATS.

Ordering and Sorting

Listing **Comparing**

YOUR TOPIC

Problem solving **Creative tasks/projects**

Sharing experiences/opinions, anecdote telling

A *listing* task might be: List three reasons why people think cats make good pets; a *comparing* task might be to compare cats and dogs as pets, or to compare the behaviour and characters of two cats you (or your partner) know; a *problem solving* task could be to think of three practical and low budget solutions to the problem of how to look after a cat when the whole family are away from home. An *experience sharing* task could involve sharing stories about cats. Of course, you could think of many other tasks for each type.

I made the point that, generally speaking, the task types around the top of the circle are cognitively less challenging than the three types at the bottom. For the more demanding tasks, it's a good idea to allow some silent preparation time (either in class or as homework the day before), so that learners can at least think of what to talk about before they get started.

After this, groups decided on their topics, and we went round the circle, one type at a time. For each, we first discussed some of the processes involved in that task type and I gave some examples of tasks (more details in Willis, 1996, Appendix A). Then the groups had five minutes or so to come up with two or three different tasks of that type arising out of their topic, and to evaluate them in terms of general objectives of TBL. Each group then reported to the whole audience their two best ideas for tasks.

This way, the whole group gained the benefit of hearing the results of other

groups' discussions, which proved an enriching experience. In doing this, participants were also experiencing for themselves a series of typical TBL cycles.

We found that not all the task types were equally productive for every topic. Some topics lend themselves more readily to some types than to others. It is also unlikely that any teacher would want to set six tasks on every topic! But, once the topic vocabulary is learnt and familiar to learners, it makes sense to set two or three different task types on the same topic, then students, once confident with the basic vocabulary, gain practice in a wider range of interaction types.

Here are more details of each type of task.

1. *Listing* can entail pair or class brainstorming, or fact-finding, (i.e., asking other people, or reading extracts from brochures, reference works etc. Listing tasks can be based on topics involving people, places or things (e.g., for "dating": *List the places where you might meet up with other young people in this town*) or actions, reasons, events, (e.g., *List the things you might say when you want to start a conversation with someone you don't know*). The outcome here is the list that can be shown to others, discussed and evaluated.
2. *Ordering and Sorting* tasks can involve sequencing, ranking in order of priority or cost, and classifying. These tasks can often be based on the lists generated in a Listing task, e.g., *Rank the qualities of a good government in order of importance*. Or they can be based on a text, e.g., *Write a list of the events from the newspaper story in the order in which they actually happened*. The outcome here is an ordered list, which students then report to other groups and give reasons for the order they chose. The latter task (sequencing events) could be done from memory, and possibly within a set limit—which would make it more of a challenge and would mean that the Reports would all be different—not everyone would remember every single event.
3. *Comparing* tasks can involve the processes of matching, finding similarities or finding differences. Learners can match information from two different sources, to identify something or someone; e.g., matching a description of a route to a map, or matching photos with descriptions of people. They can compare two versions of the same story, two summaries of the same report or review, or play "Spot the difference," using pictures and/or texts. Comparison tasks could follow the completion of a listing or ordering task (1 or 2 above): Learners can compare results, and/or list similarities and differences.
4. *Problem Solving* can include short puzzles, including logic problems or riddles, (which tend to be cognitively demanding, leaving little room in the mind for attention to language processing), real-life problems, such as those typically found on problem pages in magazines, or longer case studies, such as those used in business simulations. Incomplete texts can form the basis for a problem solving discussion, e.g., a completion task. Students can sometimes be asked to come up with two or three alternative solutions to a problem and evaluate them. Thus, a complex problem-solving task may well include elements of other task types, e.g., listing, ranking or comparing. The outcome will of course be the suggested solution, presented to the class in oral or written form.
5. *Sharing Personal Experiences* tasks can give learners a chance for more sustained, personal talk, i.e., talk that is more typical of social interactions, rather than being purely functional or transactional. They include anecdote-telling, reminiscing, e.g., childhood

memories of holidays or of critical incidents, and giving opinions on/ describing reactions to a specific issue or event. Some tasks like these can be done purely in writing, which is then handed round for others to read and react to again in writing.

6. *Creative Tasks and Projects* tasks will normally take a longer time and sometimes be done over a series of lessons and/or in students' own time. They may be preceded by tasks of a listing or ordering type. They could involve creative writing, possibly stimulated by a poem or short story. They could be media projects: recording interviews, carrying out surveys, social or historical investigations. These should always be produced with a specific audience in mind, e.g., a school magazine or newspaper for other classes or another school, a brochure for parents or visitors, or a video to show to another group.

And finally, when evaluating a potential task, keep in mind that the aim is to stimulate learners' use of language. Thus, a listing task, such as *Make a list of six famous racing camel riders in Dubai*, may stimulate little more than a few Arabic names; whereas *Make a list of four qualities you think a good camel rider should have, and be prepared to justify your selection* is likely to stimulate far richer language output.

Instructions for tasks

Each task that you design needs to have a goal—some kind of tangible outcome that can be achieved through the use of language, and then shown or reported to other people. Instructions for the task need to make learners aware of this outcome, and how they are expected to reach it.

From research on "closed" and "open" tasks (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993, p.125; Willis, 1996, p. 28) it would seem that more (and better quality) interaction is likely to be generated through closed tasks with specific instructions. Consider these two sets of instructions and try to imagine the resulting interactions:

1. *In twos, discuss the advantages and disadvantages of travelling by bus.*
2. *In twos, think of three advantages and two disadvantages of bus travel in cities. Then write these out neatly, in order of importance, for other pairs to read.*

With specific instructions, learners feel more secure; they know what outcome to aim at (in the latter case, a list of five items, ranked in a specific order), and they will also know precisely when they have finished.

It is always a good idea to try your task instructions out on a colleague. Get them to spend a minute or two actually doing the task with you or someone else. Then you will have first hand experience of whether your task, as it stands, is likely to stimulate the kind of interaction which may promote learning.

Spoken language and recordings of tasks

Most course materials nowadays give good exposure to written texts and the grammar of written language, but pay scant attention to spontaneous spoken language. There are many features of spoken language which are very different from planned, written language (for example, ellipsis and expressions of vagueness are common when speaking but less appropriate in writing); if learners wish to improve their own spoken language, a study of such language features can really help. Interestingly, research carried out in Japan by Aston MSc students has suggested that spoken English grammar is more akin to the grammar of Japanese than is traditional English grammar, which is based on written language (Guest, 1998; Hill, 1998). In order to gain real spoken data which is directly relevant to the tasks you have designed, arrange for two fluent speakers to record themselves doing the tasks in the target language. Set a time limit of one, two or three minutes depending

on the task type and the level of students. If possible get two pairs to record and then transcribe the most suitable recording. (See Willis, 1996, pp. 86-99 for advice on making task recordings.)

The transcription can be copied and used for language-focused exercises after the students have done the same task in class. The basic meanings will by then be familiar and the context clear. Students love studying what they feel is colloquial, spoken English, and they often notice ways of saying what they themselves had wanted to say but for which they lacked the language.

There are other purposes for such recordings:

- task recordings and a transcription of the interaction (or selected parts) can give us insights into the kind of language that is typical of that kind of task, and what can be expected of learners.

- they can be used, as a whole or in part, as a starting point for a task, to set the scene and to stimulate pre-task discussion.

- transcripts of recordings help us to pick out focal points for language study and consciousness-raising activities. (Willis D. & Willis, J., 1996, pp. 63-76)

From here to the future: Summary and way forward

In this paper, as in my workshop, I have suggested that using a typology of tasks allows a more systematic approach to task design. Using a variety of types of task, of topics and of starting points we are giving our learners a broader coverage of language and a richer variety of language experiences. By recording tasks, we can gain some idea of how fluent speakers carry out the tasks we design, so that we know what we can expect of our own students: The recording gives us some base-line data that we can use in class. Through transcribing the best recordings and using the transcriptions as a focus for language study, we can gain insights in how spoken language is typically used, and devise appropriate language study activities to highlight features of language form. In taking up a holistic task-based approach, we can help our learners become active and confident language users in a range of circumstances.

In our workshop, groups designed only five out of the six types of task; so rich was the discussion stimulated by the process. I hope that the co-operative task design process begun in the workshop (or, hopefully, stimulated by this article) will act as an impetus for you, as teachers, to get together with fellow colleagues in your institution and continue the process—selecting topics and designing tasks that will help your learners to acquire and use English naturally.

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情報が目に見えるカタチになったとき、それは「ドキュメント」と呼びます。
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また、ドキュメントというカタチにしてはじめて人の想像力に応じ、
人の心にまで届く深いコミュニケーションに役立つのです。
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Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning: From Classroom Practice to Generalizable Theory

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As our title is meant to indicate, this presentation is both practical and theoretical. It will give an account of a particular language learning environment where the development of learner autonomy has been a central concern for more than 20 years; but it will also seek to elaborate a theoretical perspective on the basis of that account. In many ways the learning environment and the learners we shall describe are culturally distinctive. Nevertheless, as our title is also meant to indicate, we believe that what we have to say is relevant to all language teaching-learning environments, irrespective of cultural context or the age and previous experience of the learners. We could ourselves illustrate the arguments we shall make with reference to other kinds of learners in other places; for example, Irish university students learning continental European languages, or refugees from various countries learning English in Ireland.

本稿はその表題が示すように実践と理論の両方を扱うものである。20年以上にわたり学習者の自律性を育成することが重要視されてきている言語学習環境について論じる。それをもとに，理論的な全体像について詳述する。様々な意味で，我々が記述しようとする学習環境と学習者は文化的に多様である。しかしながら，表題が示すように，我々が論じるべき事柄は文化的背景，あるいは年齢や学習者の学習経験の違いを超えて，あらゆる教育・学習環境に関連があると信じている。

What is learner autonomy?

David Little: For us, autonomy is simply defined as "the ability to make your own decisions about what to do" (*Collins Cobuild Dictionary*). When it is applied to learners of foreign languages, we would define it as follows:

> Learner autonomy is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person. An autonomous learner is an active participant in the social processes of learning, but also an active interpreter of new information in terms of what he/she already and uniquely knows. (Bergen, 1990, p. 102)

Three features of this definition are particularly worthy of note. First, learners' readiness to take charge of their own learning is a matter of capacity but also of attitude and motivation. Secondly, learning is assumed to be an inescapably social (and thus interdependent) process in which the individual learner nevertheless always retains his or her independence. And thirdly, the autonomous learner is proactive both in the social interaction that frames his or her learning and in the individual processes of reflection by which learning is monitored and evaluated.

It is a common mistake to assume that the development of learner autonomy requires the teacher somehow to fade into the background. This is impossible for two reasons. First, teachers are the people who create the contexts of formal learning: without them, it is unlikely that any learning will take place. Secondly, although learners are capable of exercising a degree of autonomy from a very young age and in

the earliest stages of learning, the gradual growth of their capacity for autonomy requires the stimulus and support of a teacher. In other words, learner autonomy "does not entail an abdication of initiative and control on the part of the teacher" (Little, 1991, p. 4).

Leni Dam: A simplified model of a teaching-learning sequence proposes that in classrooms some activities are directed by the teacher and others by the learners. To the extent that autonomy is a capacity that expands on the basis of appropriate learning experience, learners should be able to assume control of more and more aspects of the learning process as time goes by. This happens as a result of ongoing negotiation between teacher and learners. But the teacher will always be responsible for maintaining the learning environment. Note this means learning-centred, not learner-centred. In other words, although the individual learner's personality, past experience, interests and perceived needs must all be taken into account, learning itself is the chief focus of attention. Note too that the interactive processes of negotiation draw the teacher into the learning process. We propose that learning is a cyclical process in which planning is followed by implementation, which in turn is followed by evaluation. Reflection plays a crucial role in each phase of the cycle.

Why learner autonomy?
A theoretical perspective

David Little: Why do we believe that learner autonomy should be at the centre of our pedagogical agenda? Educational critics, theorists and psychologists have provided a variety of answers to this question, but all of them have emphasized that we can only learn anything on the basis of what we already know. Equally, all of them have tended to focus on the danger of learner alienation from the content and process of learning. Over the years we have found the account that Douglas Barnes gives of this danger both illuminating and challenging. He distinguishes between "school knowledge" and "action knowledge" in these terms:

> School knowledge is the knowledge which someone else presents to us. We partly grasp it, enough to answer the teacher's questions, to do exercises, or to answer examination questions, but it remains someone else's knowledge, not ours. If we never use this knowledge we probably forget it. In so far as we use knowledge for our own purposes however we begin to incorporate it into our view of the world, and to use parts of it to cope with the exigencies of living. Once the knowledge becomes incorporated into that view of the world on which our actions are based I would say that it has become "action knowledge." (Barnes, 1976, p. 81)

According to this view, education succeeds to the extent that it enables learners to integrate "school knowledge" with their "action knowledge". This should be understood as a two-way process: "action knowledge" provides the soil in which "school knowledge" takes root, while "school knowledge" helps learners to develop an analytical perspective on "action knowledge" (Vygotsky, 1986, makes a distinction between "spontaneous concepts" and "scientific concepts" and sees the relation between them in a similar way).

One teacher's experience

Leni Dam: This theoretical view corresponds exactly to my own experience in the language classroom more than twenty years ago. As now, I was working with pupils of 14–16 years in un-streamed language classes. Although I used up-to-date methods and materials and put a great deal of energy and effort into preparing and teaching my classes, it seemed that nothing I did could dispel my pupils' lack of interest

in learning English and their general tired-of-school attitude. Almost in desperation I threw the problem back at them, challenging them to say what they would find interesting and worthwhile. In other words, I forced them to share the responsibility for decisions that I had previously taken on their behalf—decisions, for example, concerning the choice of learning materials and classroom activities. Almost immediately I discovered that by involving my pupils in planning and carrying out teaching-learning activities, I was forcing them to reflect on their learning to an extent that they had never done previously. I was also forcing them to review and evaluate their own learning. In this way we gradually created a virtuous circle: Awareness of how to learn came to influence what was learnt, which in turn led to new insights into how to learn.

Developing learner autonomy
Organizing the learning environment

Leni Dam: At the beginning we stressed that we see autonomy as "the ability to make your own decisions about what to do." In order to support the development of autonomy in our classes it is therefore essential to establish a learning environment where the learners are required to make decisions for which they must then accept responsibility. As we have seen, for the learner "this entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person" (Bergen, 1990, p. 102). For the teacher, it entails a capacity and willingness to "let go" (Page, 1992). It is important to emphasize that learners need practice in order to become good decision makers, just as they need practice in order to become good communicators in their target language. Developing learner autonomy is a long and arduous process for learners and teachers—a process in which the keywords are awareness-raising, trust, respect and acceptance. In order to support the process I have developed the following structure for a lesson or period:

Over the years I have tried out different models of classroom organization. The present model has proved an especially useful support to learners and teachers in the process of developing learner autonomy, for the following reasons:

1. Teacher roles and learner roles are well defined: It is clear what is expected of the teacher and equally clear what is expected of the learners. In the first part of the lesson the teacher is in charge and decides what to do. In the second part, the role of the teacher changes completely;

The structure of a lesson or period

0 Opening of lesson

1 Teacher-initiated and directed activities promoting awareness-raising as regards
- Learning, the learning environment, and the roles and responsibilities expected from its participants
- Useful language learning activities in terms of
  - interpreting
  - expressing
- Learners' and teacher's evaluation of teacher-initiated and directed activities

2 Learner-initiated and directed activities:
- Sharing homework
- "Two minutes" talk
- "Free" learner-chosen activities in groups, pairs or individually within the given

conditions
- Planning homework—and perhaps next step
- Learners' evaluation of work carried out individually, in pairs, or in groups

3 "Together"—a plenary session for the whole class including the teacher:
- Presentation and evaluation of results or products from group work, pair work or individual work
- Joint events such as songs, lyrics, story-telling, quizzes, etc.
- Joint overall evaluation of the lesson

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the learners are now in charge, and the teacher is a participant in processes for which the learners are responsible. In the third part teacher and learners share responsibility.

2. In the first part of the lesson, the role of the teacher is not to provide the learners with "school knowledge" (for example, information about some aspect of the grammar of their target language), but to supply them with ideas as to how best to learn the language: what to do and how to do it. In the second part, they can choose from these ideas according to their own needs and interests, but always taking into account the demands of the curriculum.
3. In order to help the learners take responsibility for their own work, I have provided them with a possible agenda. It can be changed over time, but it has proved itself especially useful at beginners' level.
4. Reflection and evaluation are fundamental to all three parts of the structure and provide a necessary basis for the negotiation by which the learning environment is collaboratively established and developed. It is through reflection and evaluation that the learners as well as the teacher are not merely allowed or encouraged but required to influence the course of learning and the role that they play in the process.

David Little: I should like to emphasize this last point by expanding it in two ways. First, the gradual growth of the learner's capacity for reflection and evaluation is not only central to the development of learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom; it is also fundamental to the educational enterprise in general. Bruner (1986) puts the matter thus:

> If he fails to develop any sense of what I shall call reflective intervention in the knowledge he encounters, the young person will be operating continually from the outside in—knowledge will control and guide him. If he succeeds in developing such a sense, he will control and select knowledge as needed.
> (p. 132)

In other words, by helping our learners to develop a capacity for reflection and evaluation in the foreign language classroom we are helping them to develop a skill that they can apply to other aspects of their education and other domains of life. Secondly, it is fundamental to the approach we are advocating that reflection and evaluation are carried out as far as possible *in the target language*. Teachers often object that their learners simply do not have sufficient target language proficiency to do this. But such an objection overlooks the fact that the capacity for reflection and evaluation can only develop gradually, on the basis of practice. If we do not help our learners to reflect and evaluate in their target language, we are neglecting a core component of target language proficiency, and thus selling them short. We shall

return to these considerations later in the presentation.

Useful tools for developing learner autonomy

Leni Dam: Three useful tools for developing learner autonomy are posters, learners' diaries and the teacher's diary, all of which help to make the learning process visible and public within the classroom. Posters may contain ideas for language learning that the teacher wants the learners to choose from. Alternatively they may provide an overview, drawn up by the learners themselves, of who is doing what and why; ideas on "how to present our work;" or joint evaluations and "things to remember."

The learners' diaries will follow the structure of a lesson or period. When a new item occurs on the agenda, the learners will enter this in their diaries and record what happens. In fact, the diary is perhaps better called a log book, since it is used to record and comment on the events of the day as the lesson proceeds and to set down plans and learning contracts for the future as well as self-evaluations and peer evaluations (which can be drawn upon for whole-class discussions or for teacher-learner evaluations).

The teacher's diary is also an indispensable tool. Here the teacher can write her plans for each lesson, comment on what actually happened during the lesson, and note down possible changes or revisions to be made in the future. The teacher's diary also serves as a model for the learners' diaries and ensures that the teacher herself is fully involved in the processes of planning, reflection and evaluation in which she wants to engage the learners.

The importance of evaluation

Leni Dam: I said earlier that my decision to involve my pupils in responsibility for their own learning necessarily involved them in evaluation. Unfortunately, many teachers regard evaluation as a waste of time because it takes away from their teaching time. What they fail to realize is that evaluation is an essential component of effective learning. It is impossible to involve learners in their own learning without requiring them to evaluate their choice of activities and learning materials, the effort they put into their learning, and the progress they make. Evaluation, in other words, is the essential starting point for negotiation and co-operation with their peers and with the teacher. Here are three examples of self-evaluation taken from learners' diaries at different stages:

> Today it was a qrrrrrriiii! day, it was avfuld! We tried to play our play on tape, but everytime I should say somting I said it wrong! my home work will be to read one more chapter. (*Boy aged 11, first year of English*)

> Comments on my work with Malene:
> I think we are working very good together, and we have learned a lot of new words. The activities were a bit borrowing, but we had fun anyway, and talked a lot of English.
> Tomorrow we will make a story.
> (*Girl aged 13, third year of English*)

> Dear Leni
> I think it has been a very exciting autumn. We have done and made a lot of funny things. But it has also been hard work. After we came home from England I was very tired of the English language. I didn't wrote in my diary for a long time and I didn't spoke a word of English. But now it is over. I like English again and that is a good thing. About the project "Homelessness and poverty" we just made I think we did a good job. But it isn't really the way I like to work I think our group-work was to serious. We just wanted to win... or how can I say it... to be the best! I think that I had to live up to the rest of

> the group's work expectation. I feelt (sic) that what I did wasn't good enough compared to the others't work. But apart from that I think I learned a lot of things. And we (the group) had a very good time and also fun. (*Girl aged 15, end of autumn term evaluation*)

David Little: When commenting on Barnes's distinction between "school knowledge" and "action knowledge," I made the point that while "action knowledge" is the soil in which "school knowledge" takes root, "school knowledge" helps learners to develop an analytical perspective on "action knowledge." These examples provide us with clear evidence of meta-cognition in action as the three learners reflect on and evaluate their learning from three quite distinct viewpoints. They also provide the perfect answer to those teachers who argue that reflection and evaluation should be done in the mother tongue on the ground that learners do not have the linguistic sophistication to do justice to their insights. These three learners clearly cope very well; and (as I noted earlier) if they were not required to write their evaluations in English, a central element in their proficiency would remain undeveloped.

Some examples of useful activities

Leni Dam: When deciding which activities to introduce to the class, it may be helpful to ask oneself the following questions: Does the activity give scope for the learners to make use of their previous knowledge and to expand on it? Does it allow them to begin from their own interests, needs and potential? Does it give scope for different kinds and levels of learner input as well as different learner outcomes? Does it give scope for authentic communication and language use? Does it focus on process rather than product? Will it be possible for learner products to be re-cycled or used by other learners? In other words, will there be an authentic audience for the products? In general, how do I as a teacher get the learners involved in their own learning rather than providing them with school knowledge?

Let me give a few examples. Instead of teaching the vocabulary we find in all course books for beginners—*desk, blackboard, wall, wastepaper basket*, etc.—let the learners produce word cards with their "own" words, chosen perhaps from a picture dictionary. These can be used by others as well as by themselves. Instead of providing learners with ready-made games, let them produce their own games. Instead of letting the learners practise ready-made dialogues from course books, let them produce their own plays. Instead of the teacher asking and learners answering, involve the learners in real and relevant communication among themselves—sharing homework, peer-to-peer talks about matters of personal concern and interest (two minutes' talk), planning what to do, etc.

The difference in communicative behaviour between learners taught along traditional lines and learners actively involved in their own learning emerges clearly from the following two examples of peer-to-peer talks. The talks were recorded at the end of the second year of English. The first example was recorded in a classroom where learning was shaped by a course book designed according to communicative principles:

J: I'm going to have a family with two ehm chil... childrens, and I'm going to live in a big house.
I: When is your birthday?
J: My birthday is now.
I: Ah, my birthday is on the sixteen ah ja of ehm of May. When is your sister's birthday?
J: My sister's birthday is in is on the twenty-seventh of February.
I: What films do you like?

The second example was recorded in my own classroom with two of my weakest learners. As it happened, here too it is the

birthday of one of the participants:

D: What did ... what should you do today?
L: Today I ehm I shall have my birthday.
D: Have your birthday today?
L: Yes.
D: Happy birthday.
L: Thank you. So I should home and, and and make a made a cake to my ...
D: Birthday cake?
L: Cake, yes, so I should have this cake and, so to, afternoon my eh my friend is coming and my Dad and Mum's friend is coming too, so I should have birthday [?].

Learner autonomy in different cultures

David Little: We began our presentation by drawing attention to the fact that our practical examples are all taken from one particular environment. Not only is Danish culture in many respects a close relative of English culture; Denmark also has a strong tradition of participatory democracy. Thus it may seem that what we have been describing is the obvious, perhaps inevitable product of a positive attitude towards the English language and a socio-cultural tradition that is strongly oriented to the idea of learner autonomy. Such a thought may prompt the speculation that learner autonomy is an essentially western concept, and as such inappropriate in non-western educational contexts. Against this view we would make the following three points:

1. Whatever the stated aims of national and regional curricula, learner autonomy is not a widespread achievement in western educational systems; the dominant pedagogical tradition in the west is at odds with the view of teaching-learning that we have been elaborating in this presentation.
2. To the extent that non-western educational systems seek to promote critical thinking and independence of mind, they are committed, at least by implication, to the ideal of learner autonomy. This may set them at odds with other aspects of the cultures of which they are part, but it is only in the imagination that cultures are entirely self-consistent systems. In reality they are fuzzy and underdetermined, and often contradictory.
3. The possible range of cultural diversity is in any case constrained by our common biological endowment. The fact that a child born in Rumania to Rumanian-speaking parents can be brought up in England by English-speaking adoptive parents as a native speaker of English, should remind us that our linguistic and cultural identity is always provisional.

None of this should be taken to imply that we underestimate the importance of cultural factors in education as in other domains of life. On the contrary, we would argue that any attempt to foster the development of learner autonomy must take account of local cultural factors—for example, the physical environment, how teachers and learners typically interact with one another, and (more generally) the relation between social knowledge systems and the discourse by which knowledge is mediated. But we would also argue that in its essence learner autonomy transcends cultural difference. (For a more detailed consideration of these and related issues, see Little forthcoming, Aoki and Smith, forthcoming.)

Learner autonomy: With what result?
Giving the last words to learners...

David Little: In the end, a second language pedagogy designed to foster the development of learner autonomy must be

judged by its results. As far as learners are concerned these should include the development of an ability to use the target language fluently and flexibly not only for communicative but also for reflective purposes. Here are two examples of evaluations written by two of Leni's pupils after four years of learning English. They are remarkable for their combination of clear and fluent expression with a developed self-awareness, and they stand as conclusive proof that foreign language learning can contribute much to the personal development that effective education brings:

> Most important is probably the way we have worked. That we were expected to and given the chance to decide ourselves what to do. That we worked independently....And we have learned much more because we have worked with different things. In this way, we could help each other because some of us had learned something and others had learned something else. It doesn't mean that we haven't had a teacher to help us. Because we have, and she has helped us. But the day she didn't have the time, we could manage on our own.

> I already make use of the fixed procedures from our diaries when trying to get something done at home. Then I make a list of what to do or remember the following day. That makes things much easier. I have also via English learned to start a conversation with a stranger and ask good questions. And I think that our "together" session has helped me to become better at listening to other people and to be interested in them. I feel that I have learned to believe in myself and to be independent.

...and teachers

Leni Dam: Throughout this presentation we have been concerned with some of the things that teachers can do in order to help their learners to become autonomous. When learners succeed to the extent that these last two examples show, teachers as well as the learners themselves are transformed by the experience. As a Spanish teacher commented in 1989: "The most positive thing about the way I am working now is that I have become a human being in my classes."

This is not to say, however, that the pursuit of learner autonomy is without difficulties. Here are some of the problems that have been identified by teachers I have worked with:

- Learner autonomy seems to conflict with parents' as well as learners' attitudes and expectations: "It is the teacher's job to teach."
- It can make the teacher feel insecure: "Will they learn enough? What about the weak learners."
- It can be difficult to handle in large classes.
- Teachers find it difficult to let go.
- Learners find it difficult to take hold.
- Are learners really capable of being responsible?
- An autonomous classroom is difficult to administer: chaos, lack of time, waste of time.
- What about curricular demands and tests?

Of course, some of these problems are more real than others, and given time and the teacher's developing skill, all of them can be solved. In any case, the problems soon fall away into insignificance when set against the successes that can be achieved by fostering the development of learner autonomy:

- Motivation and engagement on the part of the learners.
- Socially responsible learners.
- The teacher's insight into the individual learner's needs and

ways of learning.
- The learners' linguistic competence.
- The satisfaction deriving from the fact that the teacher has become a co-learner.

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* These two items can be ordered from DPB (Danish Pedagogic Library, P.O. Box 840, 2400 Copenhaven NV, Denmark). Price per video (excluding postage) 200 Dkr.

Task Ideas for Junior and Senior High School

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In this article I describe a task-based lesson format that has been successfully used with junior and senior high school students to (a) increase motivation, (b) promote class participation, and (c) enhance language learning. The task format is outlined and a specific lesson plan is included.

本論は，中高生に対して使用された作業中心 (task based) の授業形態について述べるものである。この授業形態は (a) 生徒にやる気を起こさせる，(b) 授業への取り組みを促す，(c) 言語学習効果の向上という点に於て効果がある。また作業形態についての概要と，具体的な授業プランを提示する。

Introduction

Language teachers are constantly challenged to interest learners in what is going on in class and to motivate them to participate—without resorting to "entertaining" or using rewards for participation. I have been able to interest and motivate learners to willingly join in activities through using and adapting the task framework outlined by Jane Willis (1996). The resulting lessons, which have been successfully used with both secondary school students and adults, motivate students to participate; promote communicative outcomes, even at a simple level; and include a meaningful element of language focus.

The format that I suggest builds motivation to participate by offering learners

an element of choice in the lesson; a chance to demonstrate previous knowledge; and an opportunity to carry out a task that is not solely a linguistic exercise, but one with a creative outcome (e.g., solves a problem, answers a question, or creates something new). There are three basic phases involved in this format: an opener, a task, and a language-focus element.

Openers

The opener does not simply introduce the topic or activate schemata, but grabs student interest, and lets learners demonstrate what *they* know about the topic, or what they *want* to know. The topic is important for attracting student interest, and themes such as sports, food, and personal/entertainment space work well with secondary school learners. The goal is to allow learners to respond freely to stimulus, have choice about what is to be learned, as well as a chance to demonstrate prior knowledge. Questions that learners can relate to such as "What summer sports do you like?" or "Where is a good place to go on Sunday afternoons?" are easy to answer and allow for the expression of individuality. Realia is a powerful tool for attracting student interest and eliciting vocabulary at this stage of the lesson. I make lists of learner-generated vocabulary on the board and accept all student answers, as long as they are intelligible and relate in some way to the stimulus. Students respond to having their contributions accepted, and often amaze me with their creativity and humor.

Tasks

The task provides a chance not just to practice language, but to achieve an outcome outside of the language practice. For students who are not motivated by learning itself, interesting tasks designed to require language use can provide the impetus to use English. Secondary students love to draw and design, and to talk to each other. Successful tasks give learners the opportunity to draw things such as imaginary people, or their own homes; or design entertainment centers or ideal boy/girlfriends. Speaking activities which allow learners to find out things about each other, such as the items commonly found in their refrigerators or what activity the most people did during vacation can be valuable.

These projects take a little time, but without dictating grammatical structures, you can assure that students use a certain amount of English by having them report to the class after an allotted period of time. If the project is on paper, you can require English labels, too. Learners are willing to ask questions relating to spelling, word choice, and grammar when they are carrying out fun, motivating tasks. As for concerns about accuracy, it has been shown (Foster, 1996) that students automatically use the most correct language that they are capable of when "performing" for or reporting to their teacher or peers.

Language focus

Motivation is important for getting students involved in learning, but it is also necessary to have students concentrate on form, and try to master the code that makes up language. Research has shown (see Skehan, 1994) that doing activities that make patterns and features of language salient for learners, without spoon feeding grammatical rules, is effective for communicative language learning. As students share the results from the tasks, you can write on the board some of *their* structures that illustrate the grammatical point that *you* want them to notice, correcting any errors. With lower-level learners in particular, I find it useful to visually highlight features such as the regular simple past *-ed*, *a/an* vs. *some*, or *have* + noun vs. *be* + adjective for describing people. You can highlight features by asking learners to do a short task (e.g., "Circle all of the *has*'s and put a box around all of the *is*'s. Look at what comes after each."). It is important to keep the target language in mind when designing tasks. Once learners have "noticed" a feature of language, reinforcement activities

such as drills, listening or written practice, or repetition of a task similar to the original one, should follow.

A lesson plan

The following lesson, describing people, is designed to highlight the difference between *have* + noun vs. *be* + adjective.

1. Bring interesting magazine pictures of different people.
2. Hold up the pictures in turn, ask, "What does s/he look like?" or "Describe this person," and write responses on the board (e.g., blue eyes, old).
3. When students have generated a sizable list of words, divide them into groups of two to six people, give groups a blank piece of paper and colored pens, and instruct them to draw *any* person they choose.
4. Set a time limit.
5. When groups have started, tell them that they must also write sentences, in English, to describe the person on a separate piece of paper.
6. Circulate and help students.
7. When time is up, collect pictures, hang them up, and ask each group in turn to read its description. Instruct other groups to listen and match the description to the correct drawing. As students speak, select suitable sentences and write them (error-free) on the board.
8. After several groups have read, and there are several sentences on the board, ask one student to circle all of the *haves*, and another to box (or use two colors) the *bes*. Help learners to "see" the pattern that emerges when using *have* and *be* for describing people.
9. Once the pattern is understood, have learners either use it by repeating a task similar to the original one or practice it employing more tradi-tional techniques (e.g., substitution drills, writing exercises, dictations).

Conclusion

The plan described above is an example of how high-interest topics and activities that learners find fun can be integrated into productive lessons. The motivating and "fun" parts of a lesson need not and should not be separate from the learning focus. We can use interesting non-linguistic elements such as creative choices and enjoyable activities to enhance the communicative language learning process.

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Looking at Real World Tasks: Comparing Task-based and Skill-based Classroom Instruction

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In this study, we compare an analytic or task-based approach and a synthetic approach to syllabus design in developing student discussion abilities. Three different classes of freshmen students participated in weekly discussion activities over one semester. In the task-based approach, students in small groups watched others perform discussions, then rated, recorded and described examples of turn-taking language. In the synthetic syllabus, students heard the functional language for soliciting opinions, expressing agreement and disagreement and rehearsed the language in pairs.
The pre-test and post-test consisted of videotaped group discussions of five minutes which were rated by three native speakers for eye contact, gestures, turn-taking language, and discussion content. Groups using both approaches showed significant difference from their pre-test to post-test scores with greater improvement in content and turn-taking language than in eye contact and gestures.

今回の研究は，学生のディスカッション能力を向上させるためのシラバスに関して，(1) Analytic approach，もしくは Task-based approach と，(2) Synthetic approach を比較したものである。データは 3 クラスの大学一年生が一学期を通して週に一度行った活動によるものである。(1) Task-based approach によるシラバスでは，学生は小人数のグループに分かれて他グループのディスカッションを観察し，その後その turn-taking language（交替で発言する際の言語）の例を評価，録音，記述するという活動を行った。一方，(2) Synthetic approach では，学生は相手の意見を求めたり，意見に対する一致，不一致を表現したりするために，ディスカッションのための機能的な言葉を聞き，それをペアになって練習した。活動前と後のテストは，学生のグループ・ディスカッションを 5 分間ビデオで録画し，アイ・コンタクト，ジェスチャー，turn-taking language，ディスカッションの内容において，3 人の英語母国語話者が評価したものである。結果は次のようである。両方のアプローチによるシラバスで活動を行ったグループの活動前と後のテストに重要な差が現れており，特にアイ・コンタクトとジェスチャーよりもディスカッションの内容と turn-taking language において大きな進歩があった。

Two approaches to syllabus design

A useful distinction in conceptualizing options in syllabus design was initially made by Wilkins (1976; see also Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1988; Robinson, 1998a; White, 1988). This distinction refers to the learner's role in assimilating the content provided during group instruction and in applying it individually to real-world language performance and inter-language development. *Synthetic* syllabuses involve a focus on specific elements of the language system, often serially and in a linear sequence, such as grammatical structures, language functions or reading and speaking micro-skills. The easiest, most learnable, most frequent, or most communicatively important (sequencing decisions can be based on each of these ultimately non-complementary criteria, and on others) are presented before their harder, later learned, less frequent, and more communicatively redundant counterparts. These syllabuses assume the learner will be

able to put together, or synthesize in real-world performance, the parts of the language system (structures, functions, skills etc.) that they have been exposed to separately in the classroom.

In contrast, *analytic* syllabuses do not divide up the language to be presented in classrooms, but involve holistic use of language to perform communicative activities. One version of an analytic syllabus is adopted in task-based approaches to language teaching (see Hudson & Yoshioka, 1998; Long, 1985, in press; Norris, Brown & Robinson, 1998a, 1998b; Skehan, 1998). The learner's role in these syllabuses is to analyse or attend to aspects of language use and structure as the communicative activities require of them. This analytical learning is governed by: (a) the learners' developing *inter-language systems*; (b) their preferred *learning style* and *aptitude profile*; and (c) the extent to which they are themselves *motivated* to develop to an accuracy level which may not be required by the communicative demands of the task. Additionally, interventionist teacher techniques can be used during or following task performance to draw learners' attention to aspects of task performance that, non-target-like, are judged to be learnable and remediable (see Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998). For these reasons, researchers have argued that analytic approaches to syllabus design, accompanied by focus on form techniques, are more sensitive to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) processes and learner variables than their synthetic counterparts. They have also claimed that such approaches do not subvert the overall focus on meaning and communication encouraged during classroom activity.

Our study represents an initial attempt to operationalize a task-based approach to the development of real-world academic oral discussion ability, in which students first performed academic oral discussions, before "noticing" (Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1990), either during or following task participation, aspects of their performance that could be improved. Two groups operationalized this approach—one in which the post task noticing activities were frequent and structured (Group 2), and the other in which the activities were less frequent and less structured (Group 1). This latter group approximated to experiential learning through exposure alone, while the former implemented a greater number of interventionist teacher-led noticing activities.

We contrasted this approach with a more familiar and traditional synthetic EAP (English for Academic Purposes) syllabus, in which a third group of students (Group 3) were first taught academic discussion micro-skills (agreeing and disagreeing, exemplifying points, turn-taking procedures, for example); were next encouraged to practice these micro-skills; and were then asked to practice them further, largely in isolation from integrative whole task practice (see Table 1).

The students

The analytic or task-based approach and the synthetic approach to syllabus design were compared over one semester at Aoyama Gakuin University (eight classes delivering instructional treatments, and one class each for pre and post-testing). Three classes of 19, 20 and 21 students, each at an intermediate level of English language ability, participated in the study. The students were English majors in the first term of their freshman year. This was the first of two years in an integrated language skill program that combines 6 hours of weekly instruction in speaking, listening, writing, and reading.

Upon entering the program, the students take a language placement test and are grouped according to three

Table 1
Operational distinctions between analytic and synthetic teaching

ANALYTIC	SYNTHETIC
1. Pre-Task Teacher helps students prepare for the task by describing the elements of a discussion: turn-taking, eye contact and gesture, phrasal or turn-taking language, and discussion content. Students view a video of others doing a discussion.	1. Presentation Teacher helps students prepare for task by providing them with an overview of the components of a discussion and examples of the types of functional language used: expressing agreement and disagreement, and soliciting opinions, etc. Mention is made of non-verbal elements of a discussion such as eye contact and gesture.
2. Task Students read the text and participate in a discussion.	2. Practice Students read the text and practice the appropriate language.
3. Post-Task: Observation and Self-Reflection Students watch other groups doing the task, compare groups, rate their efforts by viewing audio and video cassettes. Students prepare transcripts, identify examples of effective turn-taking language, and discussion content.	3. Production Students have discussions, and teacher gives them feedback.

different levels of ability. The curriculum is organized into themes at each of these levels, and students undertake a variety of tasks and
activities such as writing journals and essays, reading and reporting on newspaper articles, doing book reports and oral presentations, and participating in small group discussions. In terms of a needs assessment, surveys of the students indicated that they wanted to do much more speaking in class and that they were frustrated because they felt they were unable to communicate with native speakers. At the same time, their teachers indicated that the most of the students had little ability to participate in discussions, even in Japanese.

The treatment

In the analytic or task-based approach, students in small groups of 3 or 4 persons worked on a weekly cycle of tasks (whole-group oral discussion), and then post-task activities that included self-reflection on their task performance, and/or group discussion of comments they made about their own and each other's performance using audio and video recordings of their group discussions. Group 2 performed more of these than Group 1. In the initial classes, a limited number of pre-task orienting activities were used by both task-based groups to orient students to the features of turn-taking, gesture, and language use, which they could profitably attend to and comment on throughout the rest of the semester in subsequent post-task noticing activities.

At the beginning of each class, groups of 3 or 4 students sat together and watched

other students performing discussions, noted the features of those discussions, and rated the group's performance. Selections from recordings of their own discussions were later transcribed by each set of group members and were used while they looked for examples of successful and unsuccessful phrasal or turn-taking language, and discussion performance, among other features of group discussion. The students then compared their observations with those of their classmates.

In contrast, students in the class following the synthetic, skills based syllabus (Group 3) learned about different kinds of functional language used in discussions such as soliciting opinions, expressing agreement and disagreement. The appropriate expressions were shown to the students, before they rehearsed them on a weekly basis in pairs, applying them to follow-up activities, with little opportunity for whole-task discussion practice.

Each week, all the students in the two task-based classes were randomly assigned to discussion groups of three or four persons. Pedagogy in the skills-based class largely involved individual and pair work. To ensure that both groups used topics of similar interest and difficulty, the discussion text *Impact Issues* was used in each class. About 45 minutes was spent on discussion activities during each week of the 8-week treatment. The issues selected for discussion were chosen according to the themes in the Integrated English Program.

The rating instruments

The pre-test and post-test consisted of videotaped group discussions of 5 minutes in length. The individual students in each discussion were scored by three experienced native speaker raters who averaged over ten years of EFL/ESL experience. The raters underwent a training session where they practiced use of the rating instrument (see Table 2 on the following page). In turn, the three ratings, from 1 to 5 on a 5-point scale, for each of four categories (turn-taking, eye contact and gesture, language use, content) were averaged. Inter-rater reliability was .76.

Results

Results of the repeated measures ANOVA (Group x Category x Pre- and Post-test) of the rating averages show no significant differences for the factor Group, but significant differences for Category and for Pre- and Post- test ($p<.01$). As can be seen in Figure 1, all groups improved from pre- to post- test, with greater improvement in the areas of content and language than in eye contact and gesture. A priori planned comparison revealed a significant difference on the post-test between task-based Group 1 and the superior skills-based Group 3. Task-based Group 2 and the skills-based Group 3 were equivalent.

Conclusion

Both structured task-based teaching, incorporating focus on form activities, and skills-based teaching were found to be equivalent, with skills-based teaching having advantages over unstructured experiential task-based learning. This is possibly due to transfer of training and expectations from prior language learning experience, since the skills-
based approach is the most similar to our students' previous English learning experience in Japanese high schools. Longer-term studies of the effects of the different kinds of instruction are needed. Nonetheless, the results suggest that structured focus on form, plus extensive task practice is equivalent to carefully

Table 2
Rating scale used to assess oral discussion tasks

Turn taking	Eye contact and gesture	Phrasal language	Discussion content
* (1) follows a predictable circular pattern, preceded by lengthy pauses.	* (1) minimal to no eye contact—no gestures.	(1) speakers simply state opinions—no phrases for agreement/ disagreement, or emphasis—no clarification requests.	* (1) uninteresting, un-engaging content no supporting details or examples—main points hard to identify.
* (2) follows a less rigid format, often preceded by lengthy pauses.	* (2) limited eye contact—often directed at one person when speaking—may look down or away if not speaking—gestures are rare.	* (2) no variety in the phrases used to agree/disagree and emphasize—clarification requests are rare.	* (2) main points identifiable—content predictable-few supporting details and examples.
* (3) fairly spontaneous and unplanned, hesitations and pauses still occur.	* (3) eye contact maintained, but not used for turn taking, or emphasizing points—some rhetorical and spontaneous gestures.	* (3) varied use of fixed phrases—occasional clarification requests and confirmation checks.	* (3) main points supported by details and examples—imaginative and interesting—listeners occasionally smile and laugh.
* (4) fairly spontaneous, with few pauses.	* (4) good even distribution of eye contact—follows eye contact signals to participate-gestures accompany agreeing/ emphasizing etc.	* (4) a greater variety of phrases and speech acts—confirmation checks and clarification requests are common.	* (4) interesting and thoughtful—main ideas and examples are clearly distinguished—often surprises, amuses or otherwise stimulates listeners.
* (5) no obvious pattern, and no pausing.	* (5) even, confident distribution of eye contact—uses appropriate gestures—when listening uses gestures and other cues to take the floor.	* (5) a rich, natural variety of non-formulaic phrases—uses comprehension checks and clarification requests.	
A__ B__ C__ D__	A__ B__ C__ D__	A__ B__ C__ D__	A__ B__ C__ D__

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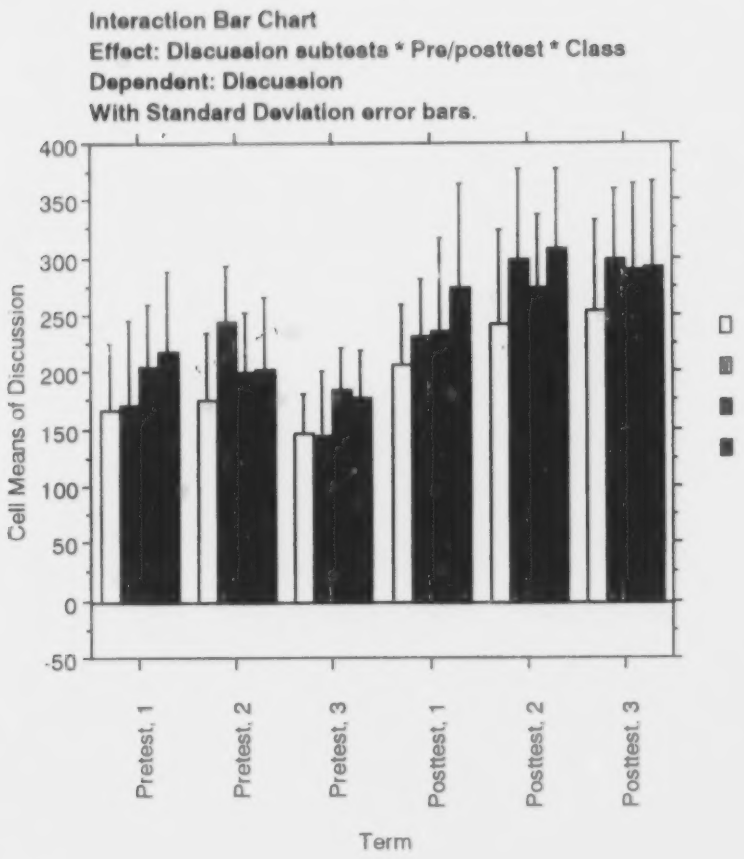

Figure 1.
Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVA

targeted and sequenced micro-skills teaching. This is a promising finding.

Non-verbal aspects of discussion abilities—particularly turn-taking ability—are the least susceptible to instruction over the short term, in all conditions. It is not clear yet whether these are best acquired incidentally, over a longer period, compared to verbal aspects which may benefit more from an explicit, intentionally directed focus of learner attention, and subsequent rehearsal and memorization. Alternatively, students may have felt more motivated and focused on verbal aspects at the expense of non-verbal aspects.

One practical concern regarding classroom research of this kind is to ensure a fair and accurate assessment of the different groups. This is made more difficult in this case by the use of videotaping for pre- and post-test assessments. There must be careful consideration of such details as stationary cameras and microphones; camera distance from the student groups; the placement of students so that their faces and upper bodies are entirely visible on camera in order to assess eye contact and gesture; and the positioning of groups in the room so that natural light from windows does not affect filming. Finally, discussion lengths, preparation time, and the use of notes while speaking must be controlled for, i.e., made uniform between groups. This is important because students referring to notes will speak more confidently, but use less eye contact and

gesture.

Finally, while research into focus on form has begun to show positive results for improvement in structural aspects of language use at the sentence and discourse level (see Long & Robinson, 1998, for review), pragmatic conversational and academic discussion abilities have so far been little examined. Effective pedagogic focus on form techniques for the manipulation of learner attention to these aspects of language development will be initially difficult to determine and study. However, they promise much in the long run for EAP pedagogy and the development of oral academic task ability.

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The Language Classroom on a Complex Systems Matrix

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In recent years, interest in applying Chaos/Complexity Science (CCS) to language teaching and learning has increased. It could be that despite its foundation in the hard sciences, teachers are finding that insights from CCS help explain complex behavior in their classrooms. In this paper, we introduce the basic concepts of CCS, before describing how the presenters and participants used a "Complexity Matrix" based on these concepts to further their understanding of the infinitely complex nature of classroom dynamics and pedagogy.

近年，Chaos/Complexity Science (CCS) を言語の教育と学習に用いることへの興味が増加した。科学的 CCS による洞察力が彼等の複合的授業風景を解読する手助けになると教師は気付き始めたのである。この研究論文は CCS の基本コンセプトを紹介し，研究発表者と聴衆が，授業内での群衆力学と教育学の本質が無限の複合体であることの理解をより深めるこれらのコンセプトに基づいた "Complexity Matrix" をどのようにして使用したかを説明している。

The language classroom on a complex systems matrix

Impetus is growing in applying Chaos/Complexity Science (hereafter CCS) to language teaching and learning; yet, the concepts and terminology can be intimidating. After describing the fundamental types of complex behavior as defined by classic chaos and complexity science, we introduce a "complexity matrix" derived from these behaviors. We follow with the results of our JALT98 brainstorming and discussion session that attempted to extend this matrix to language teaching and learning. Ultimately, we argue that that CCS offers a workable framework to further understand the infinitely complex nature of classroom dynamics and pedagogy.

Classic chaos matrix

Behaviors in chaotic systems can be divided into three categories (see accompanying figures in the Appendix). To illustrate the first category, *Fixed behavior*, consider a simple pendulum. It swings and slowly comes to rest, its energy dissipated. It stops at a point directly below the pivot; this point is clearly "attractive" to the pendulum in some abstract way, and we call it an *attractor*. This system represents transitional movement towards a point (i.e., one solution), and is largely trivial.

Imagine now a battery-powered grandfather clock; the pendulum now will swing indefinitely. This is *Periodic behavior*. We can plot motion against time (see Appendix: *Periodic, Time Series*), or more abstractly in phase-space (the left-hand *Periodic Attractor* cross section and top view). This has two solutions, each one representing an end point of the swing.

Periodic behavior is common in everyday life, and can be highly complex. The combination of the moon orbiting the earth, and the earth going round the sun, makes the moon seem to pirouette when seen from some viewpoints. However complex, this remains periodic, and can be analyzed into combinations of simpler cycles. There will, of course, be more points (solutions) on the attractor diagram (the right hand *Periodic*

Attractor figures).

Chaotic behavior is less trivial. Here, chaos refers not to ***white noise***, but a quasi-random system with in-built structure. The "strange" attractor (see *Chaotic Attractor*) shows a limited structure outside which there is no movement. Inside, it is impossible to predict exactly what will happen. The cycles go round quasi-periodically; they may cross, but they never exactly overlap. This would happen in a real situation with a powered pendulum buffeted by the wind.

By increasing battery power and disturbance from outside factors such as wind, we can "tweak" the system. As we add power, we move from fixed to periodic behavior, before entering the chaotic region. The number of solutions goes from one to two to four to eight and rapidly increases. This is represented by a *Bifurcation Diagram*, which plots the number of solutions as we tweak the system.

Close examination of the chaotic region shows three interesting points: (a) the onset of chaos is very sudden; (b) lines of structure are visible within the chaos; and, (c) there are points where the chaos vanishes suddenly to give windows of complete order. To understand this, consider a physical analogue—flying. If we fly a short distance, say 30 minutes, we may have two possible destinations (solutions). Increasing journey-time to an hour will increase this number. By eight hours, there are a huge number of possible destinations. However, increasing journey time will not always increase the number of solutions. As we reach, say 18 hours, there are only a handful of airports, those able to accommodate the largest planes, that we can reach in one leg. For a trip to the hundreds of possible end-points in Europe, most travelers will travel via one of the "hubs"; the end is the same, but the route may differ.

Describing *Complex behavior* using the Classic Chaos Matrix is a beginning, but it does not provide a complete picture, for it is the regime between "ordered" and "chaotic" behaviors, i.e., where "hubs" occur, that interest us most. To help expand our matrix, we will turn to the behavioral classes of cellular automata.

Cellular automata

The "Game of Life" is a checkerboard world in which individual squares can be either "alive" (occupied) or "dead" (unoccupied), the states of a given square being determined by three simple rules:

(1) A square dies if there are less than two live neighboring squares.
(2) A square dies if there are more than three live neighboring squares.
(3) A live square is born if there are exactly three live neighboring squares.

From these simple rules, an extraordinary range of behavior unfolds, similar to that outlined in the Chaos Matrix: stable structures that do not change, "blinking" patterns that repeat themselves, and wild proliferations with no apparent order at all (see Appendix). Yet what gives the Game of Life its peculiarly lifelike qualities is that all of these behaviors occur at the same time.

Checkerboard worlds like the Game of Life are called cellular automata (CA), and were crucial in the development of Complexity Science. Wolfram systematically investigated very simple CA and found four distinct kinds of behavior: fixed (uniform), periodic, chaotic, and complex (cited in Levy, 1992). Schuchart (1998) has explored possible classroom analogs to the four behaviors, e.g., "dead" classes, repetitive drills or routines, disorderly classes, and complex interaction. Of particular interest is "complex" behavior, which is neither completely ordered nor completely chaotic.

At this point, we are ready to develop a Complexity Matrix by adding "complex" behavior. We will collapse the "fixed" and "periodic" classes into a single class, "ordered," since they have very similar characteristics. Finally (for reasons that will become clear), we will place complex

behavior between the ordered and the chaotic. The matrix now represents three discrete classes of behavior—ordered, complex, and chaotic, which capture the essence of systems studied in complexity science, and might illuminate many classroom phenomena as well (see Appendix).

The Langton model: Edge of chaos

Complex behavior, where the sum is greater than the parts, is seen at the "edge of chaos." Language classes can exhibit relative order, as in a repetition drill, or they can exhibit relative chaos, as in a class lackadaisical in staying in L2 during an activity. Yet, sometimes there is what appears to be a phase transition, like ice turning to water, where the class is motivated, on task, and using sustained, spontaneous L2. In between the order and the chaos lies the regime known as the "edge of chaos."

The key in reaching the edge of chaos is finding the right balance, or mixture, of order and chaos. Highly motivated students tend to be at the edge of chaos naturally, as they try many new ways of achieving success within the framework of an activity, a state known as "self-organizing criticality." For students in general, however, one must think about the learning environment, to look at mixtures of cooperation and competition; old and new information; static and dynamic; or frameworks and freedom.

Think about a pair activity where students take turns asking to borrow something from their partner. By forming groups of four, and having three students asking for the same object, giving their reasons, we introduce competition ("chaos"). The lending student responds only to requests in L2; the borrowers are witnesses that ensure L1 requests are not successful ("order"). Note: Each regime—order, chaos, and edge of chaos—has its place in the classroom. For example, during a test we require orderly behavior!

The Kauffman model: Fitness landscapes

During an activity, a language class, taken as a whole can exhibit optimal language behavior, such as avoiding L1 and practicing the L2 phrases called for by the activity. On the other hand, suppose some students use the phrases incorrectly; the class will not be performing at an optimal level. Looking at all the possible outcomes of an activity, one imagines a "landscape" of optimal and non-optimal levels, called "fitness" levels. As students change their language behavior, the class moves along the landscape, climbing peaks or descending into valleys. In theory, as the class climbs a peak, weaker students are pulled up as well, paralleling the zone of proximal development proposed by Vygotsky (1978).

Kauffman (1995) showed through computer simulations that interactions hold the key to fitness landscapes. Applying this concept to the classroom, we can see that without enough interactions, there is little reinforcement to sustain the class at a peak. With too many interactions, the peaks themselves are low because of conflicting constraints, a condition known as the complexity catastrophe. Another property of fitness landscapes is that valleys often connect peaks, which means that a class may have to descend to a valley to reach a higher peak. In other words, a class has to "unlearn" a less optimal behavior to find a better combination. Finally, landscapes are dynamic (constantly changing), i.e., when one individual's success depresses others', as in a game or competition.

By exploiting the fitness landscape in the classroom, we can ensure that students have the freedom to find alternatives; that there is a mechanism in an activity to share ideas and discoveries; and, that there is some reinforcement, such as feedback, noticing, and recycling. Fitness landscapes give us a model to understand and exploit the group dynamics of an activity. Cooperative learning techniques are good examples of ways a class can better explore its fitness

landscape.

After giving a description of the three basic classes of complex behavior, (ordered, complex, and chaotic), we worked with the workshop audience in applying some of these ideas to what we call the Pedagogic Matrix. This framework gives us a powerful tool for discussing CCS and its relevance to classroom dynamics and pedagogy.

Results of the discussion

In the discussion portion of our workshop, participants discussed in groups what they might put in the "ordered," "complex," and "chaotic" columns of the matrix for the following categories: *Syllabus*, *Routine*, *Teachers*, *Learners*, *Materials Design*, or *Activities*. The participants' many provocative ideas are summarized here.

- For *Syllabus*, one group thought an "ordered" syllabus was rigidly set from the beginning. A syllabus might become more "complex" (become flexible or incorporate novel items) as the course proceeds. A "chaotic" syllabus would be the lack of any syllabus at all. (Others thought a negotiated syllabus was also "complex.")
- For *Routine*, one group contrasted a rigid, unchanging classroom routine ("ordered") with no fixed routine at all ("chaotic"). In a "complex" routine, the teacher would have flexibility within a routine. One group mentioned studies showing Chinese learners to be more comfortable with a highly ordered routine and New Zealanders with a very relaxed one.
- For *Teachers*, participants thought that teachers may insist on conformity ("ordered") or, at the other extreme, be overly ambitious in their expectations of "individuality" among the learners ("chaotic"). A "complex" compromise seeks a workable balance between these extremes. Another group felt that a lesson plan, or text, by definition moves from an "ordered" state on paper, to a "chaotic" one in which all bets are off about how it will unfold in the classroom.
- For *Learners*, one group felt that a learner's overemphasis on "correctness" represents an "ordered" part of language learning. The learner may move on to use the language as a process of discovery ("complex"). Alternately, "chaos" results when learners confront, or are presented with, unanswerable questions.
- For *Materials Design*, Marc Helgesen observed that ELT textbooks have a problem both when they are too ordered (the format identical in each unit) and when they employ extreme novelty (the format nearly incomprehensible to teachers or students). The latter in particular almost never survive on the market. Long-selling textbooks tend to adopt one of two strategies to keep from being either too "ordered" or too "chaotic": (1) using a "70% standard unit format" (about 30% novelty in the format of each unit), or (2) having nearly the same elements in each unit, but rearranging the sequence in which they appear. Helgesen also noted that content-based material may be successful in an ESL/EFL context, but in Japan the result is often "chaotic" as it presents learners with language at "i + 10" (alluding to Krashen's i + 1).
- Under *Activities*, Charles Adamson and Steven Schuchart contrasted models and drills in the Audiolingual Method ("ordered")

with impossible demands in which, for instance, students are asked simply to use model sentences in an open-ended conversation ("chaotic"). A "complex" compromise might be to have learners create examples from a given model, and have other learners ask that student questions. A similar contrast was noted with practicing, on the one hand, a model conversation ("ordered") or, on the other, telling learners simply, "Have a conversation!" ("chaotic"). The former may give learners no scope for genuine practice, while the latter offers them no guidelines and easily degenerates into a chaotic mix of L1 and L2. Again, the "complex" compromise might be to have learners use a model as a template from which they can improvise.

Conclusion

Our discussion suggested strongly that thinking about order, complexity, and chaos could be a fruitful approach to classroom practice. Given that our field is noted for intense methodological pendulum swings, it was noteworthy that participants at our workshop often identified extremes of the pendulum (e.g., drill vs. communicative, controlled vs. free) with "order" and "chaos" respectively, and generally sought a "complex" compromise that tried to adopt the best from either extreme. Complexity science may thus offer a workable framework for evaluating disparate approaches and applying them productively in the classroom.

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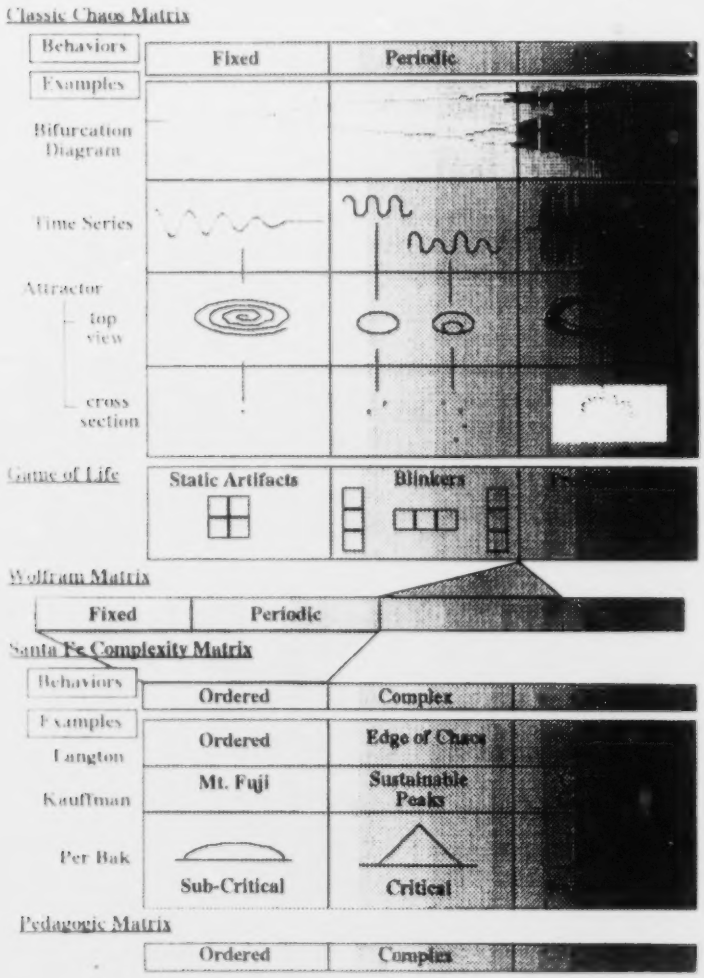
Appendix 1



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Phonological Awareness in EFL Reading Acquisition

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Phonological awareness generally, and phonemic awareness in particular, are central to L1 English reading acquisition. There is also reason to believe that low phonemic awareness is a central cause of poor EFL reading acquisition among Japanese learners. After defining and explaining what phonemic awareness is, I make a number of suggestions for pedagogical interventions early in students' English learning careers. The use of a modified Japanese *kana* chart with phonemes represented by colours, as well as phoneme blending and segmenting activities are suggested. Explicit instruction in some letter-sound relationships is also recommended. Finally, I discuss some tentative findings of low phonemic awareness among Japanese high school students from a small study (N = 20).

母国語として英語が読めるようになるためには音声学上の単位を意識することが必要とされる。特に音韻の意識が大切だと一般的に考えられている。本研究では，日本人が音声学的に EFL のリーディング習得が弱いのは音韻の意識が低いからであると論証する。本文は，音韻の意識についての説明と定義から始まり，初級英語学習者向けの教授法の提案へと続く。音韻の意識づけを行うために，母国語であるひらがなに色をつけ，子音と母音を認識させる活動を行ったり，音韻の組合せや切り離しをさせたり，アルファベットの発音の指導を行うなど，実践的な提案がなされる。最後に，日本の中学・高校生（２０人）の音韻意識の低さについての調査結果が論じられる。

I first became aware of the idea of phonological awareness a number of years ago after reading a book by Marilyn Adams called *Beginning to read: Thinking and learning about print* (Adams, 1990). I had been interested in reading for a long time, particularly in the reading problems faced by my junior high first year students, and those I, myself, faced in learning to read Japanese. Unfortunately, I'm still looking for reasons (excuses) for my poor progress in Japanese, but in phonological awareness, I think I've found a central reason for the difficulties my students experience in their struggle with written English.

What is phonological awareness?

Phonological awareness, as researchers and teachers view it, is the metalinguistic knowledge that languages are composed of, and decomposable into, smaller units of sound (see Table 1). Starting at the phrase level and going down, these units include words, syllables, onsets and rimes, and phonemes. (A rhyme for cat is bat but its rime is /æt/.)

Different levels of phonological awareness correspond to these phonological divisions. Thus, phonemic awareness implies phonological awareness at the phonemic level. In general, the smaller the phonological unit, the more difficult it is to become aware of it. Phonemes are uniquely difficult in that most researchers now believe that it is actually impossible to become phonemically aware without the effort of learning to read an alphabetic script, or other analogous training (Morais & Kolinsky, 1995).

Unfortunately, students' phonemic awareness, like many psycholinguistic phenomena, is not directly accessible to us as teachers or researchers. Instead, we need to look at phonemic *abilities* as evidence of phonemic awareness. Phonemic abilities are "the abilities to use the conscious representations of phonemes in particular situations" (Morais & Kolinsky,

1995, p. 321). They include the ability to (1) count the number of phonemes in a word (e.g., feast has four phonemes); (2) segment the phonemes in a word (e.g., feast = [f] [i] [s] [t]); (3) blend phonemes to make a word (e.g., [f] [i] [s] [t] = feast); (4) delete phonemes (e.g., feast - [s] = feat or feet); and (5) rearrange phonemes (e.g., feast backwards = [tsif]). Because phonemic abilities are very good at reflecting phonemic awareness in normal children (Morais & Kolinsky, 1995) and because the validity and reliability of tests employing these are quite high (Gough, Larson, & Yopp, 1996; Stanovich, Cunningham, & Cramer,1984; Yopp, 1988), researchers and teachers can use them to evaluate phonemic awareness.

Phonemic awareness and reading

It is widely recognized that a major cause of L1 reading difficulties in phonological processing (Hu & Catts, 1998; Stanovich, 1986; Vellutino, & Denckla, 1996). Phonemic awareness seems to be a central factor in phonological processing, and is widely recognized as being crucial for learning to read an alphabetic script like English. It is rare for students to learn to read English words beyond the initial stages without phonemic awareness (Adams, 1990; Bryant, 1995; Ehri, 1994; Gough, Juel, & Griffith, 1992; Scarborough, Ehri, Olson, & Fowler, 1998; Stanovich, 1986). Alphabetic reading requires the understanding that individual sounds (phonemes) are represented by letters (graphemes). Hence, reading will not progress without the understanding that words can be broken into their component phonemes—without phonemic awareness. Many studies have found that the strongest known relationship between encoding processes and early reading success is the ability to translate graphemes into phonemes (Adams, 1990; Carr & Levy, 1990; Perfetti, 1985; Stanovich, 1986, 1991; Vellutino, 1991). Furthermore, Calfee, Lindamood, and Lindamood found that the ability to manipulate phonemes shows a strong correlation with reading ability even up to grade 12 (as cited in Adams, 1990).

Though reading, as discussed here, is the initial ability to read words, "It has been amply documented that skill at recognizing words is strongly related to speed of initial reading acquisition" (Stanovich, 1991, p. 418). Moreover, the ability to recognize words appears to be causally related to later reading comprehension ability (Stanovich, 1991). Teaching of such initial reading skills is crucial, but very much undervalued in EFL contexts.

Japanese students and phonemic awareness

Unlike English, the three Japanese orthographies (*hiragana*, *katakana*, and *kanji*) represent language at the syllabic or multi-syllabic level, not at the phonemic level. Consequently, Japanese children do not gain phonemic awareness like their English-speaking peers do. Mann (1986) looked at the phonological awareness of Japanese children and found that these children were able to segment at the syllabic level, but had only 10% success at the phoneme level. However, as Mann did not control for the fact that the phonemes in her tests were also either onsets or rimes (personal communication, Nov. 5, 1998), this may overestimate the students' true phonemic awareness.

One reason for the difficulties involved in acquiring phonemic awareness, even when Japanese students start learning English, could be that logographic reading strategies are a universal default reading strategy (Ehri, 1994). Japanese students in particular may be transferring the logographic strategies they use to read *kanji* (Koda, 1987, 1990, 1998). Furthermore, the teaching of English reading in Japanese schools may reinforce this idea. Typically, students look at a word and the teacher tells them how to say it. An analytic approach is almost never applied, and there is rarely any instruction in grapheme-phoneme relationships.

Classroom activities

Because Japanese high school students can be expected to have low levels of phonological awareness, classroom time may be well spent trying to improve it. As students will experience more difficulty as phonological units become smaller, teachers may want to begin with syllabic awareness activities, then include onset and rime activities, and finally phonemic activities. Of course, the ultimate aim of promoting phonological awareness is not simply knowing about letters and sounds, but improving reading comprehension. Despite their potential value, these activities are useless if they are not taught in the context of well rounded, message-focused reading instruction. Because most of the activities are short, they can be introduced as the opportunity presents itself. The words that are focused on should be taken from the regular lesson. Teachers could change the focus to the phonological awareness activity for a few minutes, then bring it back the original lesson.

Syllables

Syllables are typically very easy to identify. Even very young children usually have few problems in their L1 (Adams, 1990). In an L2, there are likely to be more difficulties. Although the number of syllables in a word is debatable in only a few cases (e.g., *fire* = 1 or 2), the syllable boundaries are much more open to interpretation. Indeed, different dictionaries often indicate different boundary locations. The following activities are designed to improve syllabic awareness.

1. Use percussion (clapping, banging, stomping) to highlight the rhythm of English words.
2. Produce words with exaggerated pauses between syllables and have students guess what the whole word is.
3. Produce words with extra syllables and have students guess what the intended word is (*Novemstaber*→*November*).
4. Count the number of syllables in words.

Onset and rime

I have found that it takes very little instruction to get students to notice rhyming and alliteration. A basic explanation of the concept and a number of well-chosen examples get them started. The following activities are fun ways to strengthen the ideas.

5. After listening to a song or a poem, students draw lines connecting rhyming words.
6. In teams, students make up as many nonsense words as possible that rhyme with a seed (*up*→*kup*, *tup*...).
7. In teams, students make up sentences that have as many alliterating words as possible (*Seven super snakes say something slowly*).
8. Students make their own rhyming poetry. Initially this can be done by filling in slots in "pre-made" poems, and later with more freedom.
9. Given a word, students find a smaller word by removing the onset (*grape*→*ape*).

Phonemic awareness

Phonemic awareness can be improved through both segmenting and blending activities. The following are divided into segmenting activities, blending activities, and those that require both segmenting and blending.

Segmenting activities.

10. Use a ***kana*** chart with individual ***kana*** written in two colours to represent their component phonemes (see Figure 1).
11. Count the number of sounds (phonemes) in words (*a* =1, *the* = 2, *speak* = 4).

12. Say each of the sounds in words in isolation (*split* = [s] [p] [l] [ɪ] [t], *through* = [θ] [r] [ʊ])
13. Circle the letters in words that make individual sounds (*that* = th a t, *foot* = f oo t).
14. Remove the first (second, third, etc.) sound from words to make a new word (*speak* = peak, *speak* = seek).

Blending activities.

15. Make a word by putting sounds together ([s] [p] [l] [ɪ] [t] = *split*, [θ] [r] [ʊ] = *through*).

Segmenting and blending activities.

16. Make a new word using the first sound of other words (*kite* + *apple* + *tie* = cat).
17. Say words backwards (*meet* = team, *late* = tail).
18. Speak in Pig Latin, a "code language" used by English-speaking children which involves moving the initial consonants (if any) to the end of the word and adding [ei] as in the following example: *This is in pig Latin* = *issthey izey iney igpey atinley*.
19. Using the rebus principle, create a script based on the first sounds of words represented by pictures then use this script to write words or sentences (see Figure 2).

Experiment

Because of the importance of phonemic awareness in learning to read English, and my feelings that Japanese students are lacking in phonemic awareness, I decided to study the level of phonemic awareness of my students. I was also interested in examining the effectiveness of phonemic awareness training that had been used in first and second year junior high classes in my school.

Design

The study consisted of a set of one-time, individual oral interview tests. Student number 17 in every class was asked to come voluntarily to my office and schedule a time for the test. From 28 classes in the school, 20 students arranged interviews. All of these students participated in the interview (see Table 2).

I expected that students in each grade would perform better than their younger peers. Such results were found by Bowey and Francis (1991) with English

L1 children and Allen (1997) in Japanese children learning English. However, we had taught phonemic segmentation and blending, and grapheme-phoneme correspondences to the junior high classes. Because of this, I wanted to see if there was any effect for training. Although the small *N*-size precluded statistically significant results, the study's purpose was mainly exploratory in nature. Discussions with students and other English teachers suggested that senior high school students had received no such training.

Method

I gave the students instructions written in Japanese and asked them to read these. I encouraged them to ask for clarification or repetition any time they were unsure. Most students asked a number of times. Each time I would give examples and attempt to clarify until they indicated that they understood. It is unlikely that the process of repetition and giving examples could train subjects to perform the task as no training studies have reported such abrupt improvement in phonological awareness. I felt that the possibility of students not understanding the directions would pose greater problems for the study than any possible training effect that directions could have. Furthermore, as I expected low results, I felt it best to give the students every chance to answer correctly.

The interview had eight sections designed

to test phonological abilities relating to syllables, onsets and rimes, and phonemes (see Table 3). Each section had from four to eight questions consisting of familiar English words. Questions and answers were all given orally. During the test, I repeated the questions as often as requested, but gave no indication as to the accuracy of students' answers.

Results and Discussion

Overall, the students performed very poorly on the tests except on the Identify Non-rhyme section. In this section, the average score was 4.85 out of 5 with a standard deviation of 0.4 (see Table 3). This indicated that the test was too easy. This same facility on rhyming tasks was also found by Lundberg, Frost, and Peterson (1988) in Danish pre-school children in their Dutch L1. Stanovich and his co-researchers (1984) also found that rhyming seemed to be an easier skill and did not correlate strongly with other metaphonological tasks. Because of this, the results of this section were dropped from further analysis. After this adjustment, the overall score on the test was 13.1 or 35% (see Table 4).

There was a general effect for age and exposure to English reading. In both junior high and senior high, each grade scored significantly higher than the grade below it. However, the junior high students who had received instruction outscored some senior high school students (see Table 4). Unfortunately, the sample size is too small to draw any conclusions from this.

Despite being given multiple examples and clarification, most students proved unable to analyze words at the phonemic level. Instead, their responses showed syllabic analysis. For example, when the task involved the elimination of the first sound (a single consonant in every case), students would eliminate the first consonant and the first vowel. Thus, when presented with the word chicken, the correct response would have been [Iken]. However, students unanimously responded [kIn], again indicating that they had not analyzed the first syllable into its component phonemes.

Suggestions for future research

I believe that despite some problems with the study, the results suggest that my students have poor phonemic awareness. Better test design is crucial for further research. Future studies need to be conducted with larger *N* sizes, and more questions. Using non-words may allow the students to focus more on the sounds, reducing any possible distraction that meaning might introduce. In testing phonemic awareness, one phoneme in a consonant blend should be the target of analysis to avoid confounding onsets with phonemes. Finally, studies that shed light on the question of whether or not readers are using logographic reading strategies would also be helpful. This could be done by giving the students a word reading test, and a non-word reading test (e.g., Woodcock, 1987). If students can read *cat* and *no*, but not *nat*, then they are likely using a logographic strategy (Ehri, 1994). Identifying any correlation between Japanese students' phonological awareness and their reading ability should be a major goal. If such a correlation exists, causality then becomes an issue. Research should then undertake to discover if instruction of phonological awareness improves the reading ability of Japanese students. Other questions for study might include correlations with pronunciation and with general English ability.

Conclusion

The importance of phonological awareness for Japanese high school students has long been overlooked. In the absence of any contrary evidence, it should be assumed that their relatively low levels of phonological awareness will likely hamper their ability to learn to read English effectively. While a great deal of research supports this conclusion in English L1 reading, there is a pressing need for more research relevant to EFL reading. I hope that more attention

will be paid to this overlooked area of EFL both in research and in the classroom.

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Table 1
Examples of phonological divisions

Phonological division	Example
word	the feast was fantastic
syllable	the, feast, was, fan, tas, tic
/onset, rime/	/ð, ə/ /f, ist/ /w, əz/ /f, æn/ /t, æs/ /t, Ik/
/phoneme/	/ð ə f i s t w ə z f æ n t æ s t I k/

Table 2
Study participants

Grade	Classes	*n* =
Jr. 2	2	1
Jr. 3	0*	0
Sr. 1	8	6
Sr. 2	8	6
Sr. 3	8	5
Total	28	20

Note. *As the junior high program was only two years old, there were no third grade students when the study was conducted.

Table 3
Results by test type

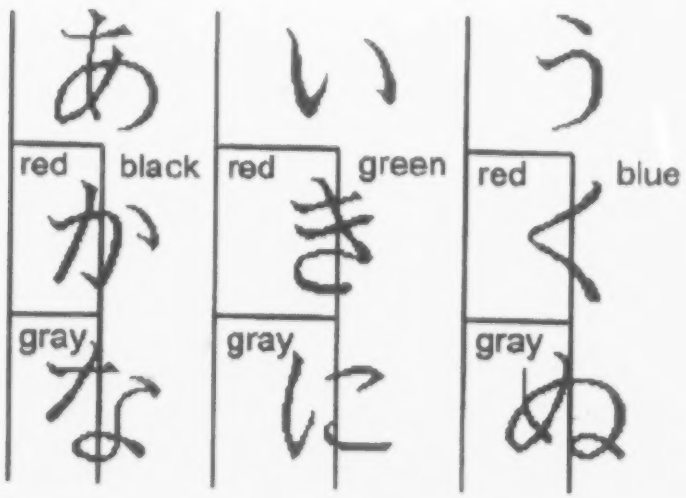
Type	*k*	*M*	*SD*
Onset/Rime Pattern	7	1.25	1.6
Rime elimination	5	1.15	1.6
Identify missing onset	5	1.30	1.4
Onset elimination	5	2.50	0.9
Identify non-rhyme	5	4.85	0.4
Produce rhyme	4	2.50	1.4
Count syllables	6	3.90	0.9
Phoneme isolation	5	0.60	1.3

Table 4
Average score by grade

Grade	*M**	*M* %*	*SD*
Jr. 1	11.5	31%	2.10
Jr. 2	19.0	51%	N/A**
Sr. 1	9.3	25%	3.27
Sr. 2	12.2	33%	3.82
Sr. 3	15.4	42%	8.37
Overall	13.1	35%	5.20

Note. * Scores do not include results of Identify non-rhyme section.
** n=1

Figure 1.
Kana chart representing phonemes with colours
Note: For example, *ka* is half in red (for [k]) and half in black (for [a]). Charts for classroom use should use actual colours instead of colour words to represent the phonemes.



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Japanese Students' Academic Literacy in English

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Focusing on graduate students, this study examined areas of difficulty for native Japanese writers composing research papers in English. I also sought to investigate the writers' processes in learning to write research papers in English. Data included interviews and writing samples collected from six participants who were education majors at an American university. I found that participants perceived difficulties in the following three areas: (1) rhetorical differences between English and Japanese which include (a) the type of information to be presented in the introduction and the conclusion and tight connections between these components and (b) redundancy problems; (2) audience awareness; and (3) organizing information from source materials. The study also found that participants learn to deal with these primarily through task engagement and interaction with others (e.g., professors, tutors, friends). Finally, I discuss the pedagogical implications for university English education in Japan.

本研究は，日本人大学院生が英語でリサーチ・ペーパーを書く際の難点と，リサーチ・ペーパーを書くことを学ぶプロセスを調べたものである。アメリカの大学で教育を専攻する６人の参加者から，インタビューとペーパーのサンプルをデータとして集めた。その結果，参加者は次の３点において困難を感じていることが分かった。(1) 英語と日本語の修辞構造の違い，特に，(a) 序論と結論に入れるべき情報と序論と結論の密接なつながり，(b) 冗長の問題，(2)読者を意識すること，(3) 文献からの情報の処理の３点である。更に，参加者は主に実際にペーパーを書くことに従事することと，教官，チューター，友人等の他者とのやりとりから，こうした困難を克服することを学んでいることが分かった。こうした結果をもとに，日本の大学英語教育への示唆を検討する。

Introduction

With the increase of Japanese students studying in graduate schools in English-speaking countries, more needs to be known about their acquisition of advanced academic literacy in English. I focused on graduate students, and looked at areas of difficulty for native Japanese writers composing academic papers in English—especially difficulties associated with writing instruction in Japan and differences of rhetorical conventions between Japanese and English. I also examined how Japanese writers acquire the rhetorical conventions of academic writing in English and necessary skills to write research papers in English. In this study, I interpret examples of students' commentaries in light of the relevant literature.

Method

Participants

Six Japanese students, one male and five females, at an American university volunteered as participants in the study. They were all graduate students in education: four in comparative education, one in language education, and one in elementary education. Their ages ranged from early twenties to early thirties. All had completed their undergraduate degrees at Japanese universities and had obtained scores of 550 or above on TOEFL.

Participants' majors in Japan were as follows: two in English language and literature, one in German, one in political science, one in law, and one in special education. In Japan, the two English majors took English writing courses where they reported they had mainly learned to

write personal essays. They also wrote their graduation theses (*sotsuron*) in English, although they reported that the feedback they received from their thesis advisors mainly concerned content. The remaining four non-English majors in Japan took only general English courses (*ippan kyouyo*) where they mostly did readings.

Data sources and analysis

Data sources were open-ended interviews and writing samples (i.e., drafts, final submissions) of research papers which participants were currently producing for their graduate courses in education. Participants described what they had done to write their papers (e.g., reading sources, making outlines, writing drafts, consulting with their professors, tutors, friends, etc.) and reflected on their processes of learning to write research papers in English in Japan and in the U.S. All the interviews, which were conducted in Japanese, were audio-taped with the participants' permission. Selected transcriptions of the interviews in Japanese and their English translations were checked by the participants for accuracy and additional comments. Recurring themes were identified across interviews, particularly the parts which illustrated participants' processes of learning to write research papers in English, as well as difficulties they perceived in their learning processes.

Findings

Participants perceived difficulties in the following three areas: (1) rhetorical differences between English and Japanese which include (a) the type of information to be presented in the introduction and the conclusion or tight connections between these components and (b) problems with redundancy; (2) audience awareness; and (3) organizing information from source materials.

1. Rhetorical differences between English and Japanese

(a)Information included in and connections between the introduction and the conclusion

This theme is related to contrastive rhetoric. Although Kubota (1997) has cautioned against stereotyping cultural conventions of writing, here characterizations of English and Japanese discourse practices are introduced due to their relevancy to the participants' comments.

Based on previous studies, Kobayashi and Rinnert (1996) contrasted some of the essential features of general discourse conventions in English and Japanese. They characterized overall movements of American discourse as "deductive" and Japanese discourse as "inductive." According to Kobayashi and Rinnert, connections between an introduction and a conclusion are tighter in American discourse than Japanese discourse. In American discourse, a thesis or summary, which is stated in the introduction, is restated in the conclusion without new ideas. In Japanese discourse, the introduction includes a topic but the conclusion includes an indication of an ending point or expansion of ideas.

One participant, Hiromi[1] characterized Japanese and English discourse conventions similar to Kobayashi and Rinnert.

Hiromi (first-year master's student)

[In Japanese writing], you don't understand what the author is trying to say without reading the conclusion. Also, the conclusion in Japanese is supposed to be a generation of new ideas or new

implications out of what you discuss. The introduction, "*ki*" [in *ki-sho-ten-ketsu*] is more like drawing people's attention. It is not necessarily relevant to your main topic. The introduction in English is an outline of what you are going to discuss, and the conclusion is to paraphrase what you have discussed, not go beyond that ... At first, I didn't know how to structure a research paper in English. While reading lots of journal articles in English, I came to realize the expected structures.

Masayo, a second-year master's student, also characterized the overall structure of English research papers as building discussions outlined in the introduction and summarizing the discussions in the conclusion. Like Hiromi, at first Masayo struggled with the expected structures of English research papers, particularly the introduction. However, she was now able to articulate the type of information to be presented in the introduction, such as a problem statement, literature review, and structure of the main argument. Masayo first learned these structures in a writing course she took in her first semester in the U.S. However, she considered this training basic and felt that she learned the expected structures through "reading journal articles and books" for graduate courses, a point which Hiromi also made.

In contrast to Masayo, Jun perceived initial difficulty in writing appropriate conclusions. He had learned that English conclusions were basically summaries, whereas Japanese conclusions added new ideas. He also learned to tighten connections between the introduction and the conclusion in English research papers:

Jun (second-year master's student)
I used to write the introduction first, which is a Japanese way of writing; in Japanese, you can start discussing something and gradually make what is being discussed understood. However, since the introduction and the conclusion are closely connected in English, I learned that it would be better to write the introduction last after finishing the rest of the paper.

The strategy of writing the introduction last, which Jun learned by himself through experience, worked well for the research paper that he was writing during this study. He outlined and wrote the introduction based on the information which he presented in the rest of the paper. His feeling that his introduction was an effective overview of his paper was confirmed by his professor's comment that his introduction was "excellent."

(a) Problems with redundancy

Miki characterized her problems with English writing more globally. In Japan, Miki's professors commented that her English writing was "wordy." In the U.S., her tendency toward redundancy was also noted by native-English-speaking friends who read her research papers. By redundancy, she did not mean simple repetition of words and phrases. Rather, she referred to repetition of the same idea and/or additions of ideas irrelevant to the main point. She related her problems to Japanese students in general:

Miki (second-year doctoral student)
Japanese writing style is characterized by such phrases as

> beating around the bush, not concise, the point coming last ...When Japanese speakers write in English according to the Japanese writing styles, their writing looks redundant to native English speakers... In Japan, Japanese students generally do not learn to organize their ideas at the paragraph level but simply translate sentences in Japanese into English. So those characteristics would contribute to redundancy in English writing by Japanese speakers...

Miki felt that her characterization of Japanese discourse as "beating around the bush" was confirmed when she read Kaplan's work (1966) in which he characterized Oriental languages' rhetorical patterns as "circular."

Miki believed that Japanese students' problems with redundancy could be overcome by writing many research papers and receiving feedback from readers. In fact, she felt that she had been receiving fewer comments on redundancy from native English speakers as she gained experience writing research papers in English.

2. Audience Awareness

The second area of difficulty which participants perceived is audience awareness. The conception of audience in writing is a relevant topic for contrastive rhetoric. Hinds (1987) classified Japanese as a "reader-responsible language" and English as a "writer-responsible language." According to Hinds, in Japanese, it is the reader's responsibility to make connections between arguments and what the writer intends to say, whereas in English, the writer is responsible for providing the propositional structure and presenting his/her views clearly. In a related discussion, Carson (1992) reported that "Japanese students, socialized to value the ability of the listener/reader to understand, have developed the ability to read between the lines" (p. 54).

The difference between reader/writer responsibilities seems to be illustrated in Yumiko's response to her American professor's comments on her paper. He underlined and questioned some of her words and sentences, and told her to clarify them. When she saw her professor's comments and markings, Yumiko felt that he had read her paper superficially and that a Japanese reader would make more effort to understand what she intended to say. She made cultural observations about roles of writer and reader:

> **Yumiko (first-year master's student)**
> In Japanese writing, the strategy is how you can make your writing look difficult or how you can make the reader read between the lines ... However, in English, if the writer does not make himself or herself clear, readers do not try to understand.

Recognizing possible differences in roles of writer and reader between English and Japanese, Yumiko felt that she had to learn to clarify her ideas in her English writing.

Similar to Yumiko, Hiromi made cultural observations based on comments her professor had made on a previous research paper, requesting that she clarify, explain or elaborate points.

> **Hiromi**
> The reason I get a comment from Dr. Miller like "you need to develop this point further" is probably I assume that everyone shares the same assumption, that's a Japanese way of thinking...Japanese people tend to think that "my assumption is the same as your assumption." So if native English speakers read our

writing, we may sound like we skip or miss something in our flow of logic.

Hiromi's observations illustrate the point which Mok (1993) made about the high level of shared knowledge between the writer and the reader in Japanese texts. After realizing the need to raise her audience awareness, on her second paper for Professor Miller, Hiromi carefully checked whether she made herself clear enough and included all steps in the flow of ideas.

Tomoko also perceived an initial lack of audience awareness, but attributed it to her lack of training in conceiving an audience in Japan.

Tomoko (first-year master's student)
At Japanese schools, I mostly wrote "*sakubun*" (essays) in which I expressed my personal thoughts and feelings freely and had never thought about a reader ... So in my first semester in the U.S., I had difficulty thinking about an audience for my research papers. My tutors [Americans] told me that I needed to explain and be specific so that the reader who did not have a background in my topic would understand. When I read my drafts again after I got their advice, I felt as if I were writing for myself, like I verbalized only three out of ten of my thoughts... I really appreciated my tutors' comments and advice. They made me develop a sense of audience for the first time.

3. Organizing information from sources

Tomoko also pointed out lack of training in writing from academic sources in Japan. She felt that Japanese students generally do not receive training in writing research papers based on multiple sources (e.g., books, journal articles), a skill necessary in U.S. study. She reported that her experience of writing a graduation thesis in Japan was not enough to learn to organize information from sources.

Tomoko
I feel I am not good at pulling together information from a wide source, and that may be a general tendency that Japanese have when they do research. Last semester [in my first semester in the U.S.], I had difficulty organizing information from the source materials to write research papers. I tried to write down what I got out of the sources in my notebook, but it was really inconvenient because you can't change orders of ideas in the notebook. So this time I tried using index cards. With the index cards, it was easier for me to find information that I was going to use for my paper.

Implications for university English Education in Japan[2]

This study found three areas of difficulty Japanese students perceive in learning to write research papers in English: (1) rhetorical differences between English and Japanese which include (a) information to be included in and connections between the introduction and the conclusion; (b) redundancy problems; (2) audience awareness; and (3) organizing information from sources. The study also found that participants learn to deal with these primarily through task engagement and interactions with others. They used published articles as "models" (see Leki, 1995 for a similar finding) to learn the expected structures of research papers; reflected on the feedback from professors, tutors and friends on their papers and tried to overcome their problems (e.g., redundancy, lack of audience awareness); and developed effective strategies (e.g., writing the

introduction last, using index cards).

These findings have the following implications for university English education in Japan. First, in order to better prepare Japanese students who plan to study in English-speaking countries, more opportunities should be provided for students to read and write academic texts in English. Since Japanese students from a variety of academic majors are expected to study in English-speaking countries, such opportunities should be provided for non-English majors as well as English majors. Second, specific training should be provided on possible differences in rhetorical structures between Japanese and English (see Mok, 1993; Kimball, 1996), the expected structures of research papers in English, awareness of the reader's needs, strategies to better approach academic reading and writing tasks in English, and other techniques to succeed in academic English.

Notes

1. All names are pseudonyms.
2. As the data show, participants' observations of English and Japanese discourse conventions raise various issues beyond the focus of this paper, such as comparison of different levels of genres (research papers in English and general writing in Japanese), as well as the possibility of oversimplification of discourse practices of both languages. These issues will be discussed in a later paper.

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Empowerment and Unionization: Reason, Application and Effect

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In this paper, we look at the changing conditions of employment security during the economic recession in Japan. We argue that teachers in higher education need to protect themselves through unionization. Although Japan offers an extensive range of public services to the

individual worker, judicial process without political support is costly and uncertain. Unions can help negotiate better conditions for their members and help protect employment rights. Taking the Kumamoto Prefectural University case as an example, we show that union support can be of particular advantage for teachers at public universities. We conclude by questioning to what extent JALT should take a proactive role on behalf of the association's members.

「エンパワーメント」は長い間，人権に関する活動を行う様々な国連機関の基本概念であった。教育界におけるエンパワーメントの意義，とりわけ経済の衰退が続く日本の教育界におけるエンパワーメントの意義は，これまでになく重要なものとなっている。公立・私立を問わずあらゆる教育機関の教員は，解雇と任期制契約に脅かされるというプレッシャーに直面している。組合の形成は，教育者が団結し，その地位を強化するためのひとつの方法である。大学レベルでは，私立の機関で教員組合の形成により成功している例もあるが，国公立では極めてまれである。最近，ある国公立大学の日本国籍を持たない教員たちが，その地位を改善するために団結して組合を形成した。この論文では，彼らの試みの結果を探り，教育者と JALT が雇用の安定に貢献する方法を提案する。

Introduction

The Japan which will soon enter a new century is considerably different from the country of 20 years ago. In 1980, it was considered the masterpiece of industrial development, a miracle of political economy. For the next 15 years, it continued to grow rich and welcome new people and ideas. This all ended with the burst of the over-inflated bubble economy: The collapse of the banking and financial sectors and the tremendous loss of investments in the Asian crisis have since fueled a conservative backlash driven by economic considerations.

This slump has also influenced the educational sector. Corporations are attempting to co-opt and commercialize higher education; national and public universities have been shedding foreign staff. Many experts believe that the economy has not yet bottomed out, and that the socio-cultural effects of the recession will become more severe for educators. It is for this reason that "empowerment," long a central concern of the United Nations and human rights circles, has become an important theme in tertiary education. In this paper, we examine empowerment from the political perspective of unionization where individuals can join together to protect their common interests and rights. More specifically, we consider the reasons, application and effects of empowerment in terms of unionization for those employed in higher education.

Why unionization: Where law is not enough.

What can be done when conflicts occur in the workplace? In a country where overtime is normal time and death from *karoushi* (overwork) is less than alarming, are there any organs charged with regulating the workplace? Though appearances may indicate otherwise, Japan offers an extensive array of public services to the individual worker. McLaughlin (1998) gives a detailed report of these offices. They include the Labor Administration Offices (*rousei jimusho*), and the Prefectural Labor Standards Office (*roudou kijun kantokusho*). Yet, they remain difficult to navigate. McLaughlin concludes that a labor union is the best way to negotiate conflicts in higher education and to seek redress for Japanese or foreigner alike. This is because the law alone is often not enough to win a case; in Japan, political backing is frequently indispensable.

Japan has a detailed and accessible body of labor laws (Sugeno, 1992). It also has a judiciary with ample experience in labor

cases. Judicial process, though, takes much time and, at best, should be considered a last chance option (Haley, 1994). At the same time, unions deal with conflict and complaint on a daily basis. No matter what conceptions of human rights, workers' rights or due process of the law one holds, any labor dispute is ultimately a political one—a struggle for power—between worker and employer. From a union perspective, political power is gained, for the most part, by organizing into larger groups which empower the individual. The most important action a union takes is negotiate on behalf of its members. An employer may refuse to negotiate with the union, but in the face of strong backing, this is often unwise. It is vital to remember, however, that in the world of "politics" compromises are inevitable. To a union, a settlement is better than holding out for all or nothing because one's principles have been violated.

Who is eligible to join a union? Union membership is accessible to all regardless of category, gender, or nationality. Most union organizers would prefer that teachers form a branch at their workplace no matter how small. NUGW (National Union of General Workers) Tokyo South, for instance, requires a minimum of three people to form a branch. Forming a branch makes it easier to get support from other branches for campaigns and demonstrations; it also makes it less difficult for the union to make appeals and present demands to the management.

The most important way a union can help teachers in higher education is through activating its network for political tactics by, for example, attending demonstrations in front of workplaces; sponsoring protest postcard campaigns or collecting signatures on petitions to present to employers; and, gathering letters of support from the leaders of other teachers unions affiliated in the same labor federation, or even in different federations. There are several large umbrella federations: NUGW is affiliated with *Zenrokyo*, perhaps the most progressive federation, and the only one that actively organizes foreign workers. Many unions join in coalitions to lobby the Diet and government Ministries for the rights of foreign workers, limited-term contract workers, women and part-time workers and against current proposals by the LDP (Liberal Democratic Party) to weaken the Labor Standards Act. Considering that foreign residents have almost no representation at the various levels of government in Japan, with the exception of a few municipal advisory councils, joining a union and supporting the progressive strands of the labor movement are two of the best ways to become politically active, for foreigner or Japanese alike. Whatever one's view of law or politics, it must be remembered that human rights are neither endowed nor enforced by heaven, but exist only insofar as they are actively exercised.

Unionization at universities: Private vs. public

The benefits of faculty unionization at private universities have been well researched. Olinger (1996) and Holden (1997) provide a detailed case study of how a newly created college attempted to ride roughshod over its faculty in total disregard of labor law and human decency. Unionization not only led to empowerment; it also attracted governmental attention and stern warnings from Monbusho. In that case, the final result was employment stability and peace of mind for both staff and students.

No such studies exist for public universities. The difference between public and private is quite acute: Private universities may be owned by an individual, a family, or a partnership, but public and national institutions are owned and managed by the state. Faculty at these public institutions are employed as civil servants (*kokka komuin*) and subject to the *Law regarding Public Officials*, which serves many purposes. One of these is to curtail involvement in political action at odds with the status quo; this law includes strict guidelines on the permissible degree of

unionization in public institutions.

What does this mean for the foreign national employed at a public university? In order to become a civil servant, one must be a Japanese citizen. Until 1982, non-Japanese could not be employed under equal status with their colleagues. 1982 saw the passing of the *Special Provisory Law for Employment of Foreign Faculty at National and Public Institutions* permitting non-Japanese to be employed under the similiar status of full time lecturer (*sennin koushi*), associate professor (*jokyouju*) and professor (*kyouju*) rather than in marginal categories such as "foreign lecturer." However, many universities ignore these legal provisions and continue to classify foreign faculty under other nomenclature.

"Academic apartheid"

In the last few years many national institutions have obeyed Monbusho initiative and sacked existing foreign faculty, replacing them with younger (and therefore cheaper) foreign staff or domestic long-term faculty. Labeled as "academic apartheid" by Hall (1997), this policy has been elucidated by Freeman (1996) and Shiina (1995). Foreign staff at national and public universities who are employed under separate arbitrary categories are isolated with no chance of union support. For those threatened with dismissal, legal remedy is possible, though unadvisable, since such universities are an appendage of the government. Suing a public university is thus akin to suing the state, and over 90% of such cases end in defeat. In the face of such overwhelming odds, several foreign faculty, encouraged by one instructor's battle and defeat in Okinawa (Aldwinckle, 1998), recently formed a union to strengthen their positions when their employer threatened their job security. Their story follows.

The Kumamoto Prefectural University case: Background

The Prefectural University of Kumamoto (PUK), formerly Kumamoto Prefectural Women's College, assumed its present status in 1992. It employs 11 foreign faculty out of a total staff of around 90. On October 2 1998, six of the 11 foreign faculty received letters stating that their contracts would not be renewed for the following year. The President, Takashi Teshima, announced the termination of employing foreign faculty as "special, irregular, part-time lecturers." These six irregular, foreign lecturers would be replaced by a regular and mixed part-time positions. Showing twisted logic, the President claimed that he was assuaging existing claims by abolishing the "irregular" way of employing full-time foreign faculty—who had always asked for "regular" (*joukin*) posts—adding that they would be free to apply for the newly created posts.

What lead to one of the largest purges of foreign faculty in post-war history? In 1993, the Kumamoto Women's University, in accordance with prefectural directive, asked its nine foreign faculty to sign Letters of Acceptance of Appointment as *sennin kyouin* ("full-time faculty members" in the translation supplied by the employer) in the new university (PUK). The letters were addressed to the Governor of Kumamoto Prefecture. However, upon arriving for work on April 1, 1994, four of these staff were presented with documents declaring their status as "part-time, special irregular, Foreign Teachers". For three years these people (joined by some of those who were hired in 1995 and 1996) refused to sign the "part-time" contracts and repeatedly asked for contracts which matched previous promises and reflected the weight of a full-time occupation.

One day, a sense of alarm struck the administration when documents relating to the case were released by the Kumamoto Prefectural Administration. These documents show clearly that the university reported to the Ministry of Education that it was employing all its foreign teachers as full-time faculty members with the ranks of professor (*kyouju*), associate professor (*jokyouju*), or lecturer (*koushi*). The four

"special irregular Foreign Teachers" were reported as lecturers. Prefectural officials and senior staff at the university have continually emphasized the differences between those foreign teachers with "regular" ranks (professor and lecturer) and those who were mere "foreign teachers." Needless to say, the exposure of these documents confirms a different story.

This Lewis Carroll-like tendency of the university to bend words and people according to whim led the foreign faculty to take the unusual step of actively protesting discrimination within the university. In response to institutional resistance, the foreign faculty sought legal advice and formed a union in 1997. As the university adamantly refused to negotiate, three members of the new union held a one-day strike on June 24, 1998. Several months later, on November 19, 1998, the Kumamoto General Union, affiliated with the National Union of General Workers (National Workers Council), submitted a "claim" (*moshitate*) to the Kumamoto Labour Commission in which they accused the Prefecture and the University of unfair labour practices: specifically, "union-busting, refusal to negotiate, and the worsening of labour conditions"—all of which are in breach of labour laws.

Forming a union brought an immediate effect. Most importantly, it instituted a recognized legal framework which was immediately taken more seriously by the university and the prefecture than at anytime during the previous years. Until then, foreign staff had consisted, during the previous three and a half years, of an amorphous group that engaged the administration in endless buck passing and blaming. With the formation of the union, the university suddenly stepped forward and accepted responsibility. The administration's scapegoats of the previous three years, the Ministry of Education and the Prefecture, suddenly disappeared, and the President admitted that key decisions had been made at the university level. Now, rather than regretting these decisions, he defended them as "appropriate."

A measure of success

The union formed at PUK had a clear objective: the achievement of parity between foreign and Japanese staff. But what is the ultimate measure of success or failure in such a venture, when the weak stand against the strong? Even without achieving its goal, the unionized faculty have reaped several rewards in a long struggle. First among these has been to increase awareness of the situation of foreign faculty among Japanese in Kumamoto and throughout the country. It has become increasingly difficult for Japanese staff and colleagues at the PUK to plead ignorance of the situation in response to calls for help. Secondly, the events in Kumamoto have served notice on public universities throughout Japan that their foreign staff will not acquiesce in discriminatory treatment. Many Japanese professors, with impeccable liberal credentials, appear honestly to believe the foreign staff are happy with their contracts because they never hear any complaints. As a result of unionization efforts, PUK faculty have come to realize that the silence is often motivated by fear rather than satisfaction.

In a broader sense, the psychological rewards have been priceless. In response to the question "Has it been worth it?", the foreign staff answer with a resounding "yes." The camaraderie, the help garnered from the union, from the support group, the publicity received in the newspapers—all these have made the long hard work into a rewarding life experience. Even without a clear victory, if other faculty learn from this experience it is clearly an achievement. The foreign lecturers all concur that speaking openly and without fear about their situation for five years has been the greatest reward.

Faculty empowerment: Looking to the future

The Kumamoto case and the dismissal of

foreign faculty at many other universities have taken quite a spotlight in these tumultuous 1990s. The financial boom of the 1980s, which made Japan appear generous and intent on "Internationalization", is clearly over. The institution of *Ninkisei* contracts and their anticipated effects, for better or worse, will only further marginalize non-Japanese nationals. As the political and economic environment increasingly shifts to the right, the Ministry of Education and critics of the educational system will continue to co-opt and commercialize universities, historically perceived as a threat or challenge to the state (Horio, 1988). Those who seek a livelihood as professional educators at private, but especially at public, universities may be subject to termination upon some whim and without legal recourse.

Over the last two years, several matters have become increasingly clear about the structure of national and public universities. The first is that the Japanese government and the Ministry of Education are not going to respond unless pushed much harder than they have been so far. The degree of control over the media which the government indirectly exercises and the natural tendency toward obedience to authority and self-censorship suggest that cases like PUK or the Gallagher case should be also taken overseas where they may be exposed freely and opened to *gaiatsu*. From such a perspective, the following are some possible measures to rectify the situation:

- Sources of employment information overseas (e.g., *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, *TESOL Placement Services*) and on the web which accept advertising from universities practicing discrimination in hiring and/or tenuring should be made aware of the current situation and encouraged not to accept further advertising from these institutions.
- Home governments of individuals affected adversely by institutionalized discrimination should be notified and urged to make this practice public knowledge in the hope that foreign governments will take a firm line on the issue.
- Individuals employed on limited-term contracts or under conditions which differ significantly from their Japanese colleagues and who have no realistic hope of obtaining the same working conditions should censure their institutions so that potential employees are made aware of the situation. For more information, see [http://www.voicenet.co.jp/~davald/blacklist.html].
- University TESOL programs worldwide should be apprised of the racially-motivated denial of equal employment opportunities at Japanese institutions and urged to make their graduates aware that should they choose to seek employment in Japan they will be almost certain to face discrimination on the basis of their nationality.

  Instructors should seek to find common cause and ally themselves with Korean, Chinese and other minorities in fighting institutionalized discrimination by the Japanese government. A major reason for denied equal opportunity is the government's disdain of minorities entering into careers in public service. This will contribute to a more pluralistic society, and the much vaunted "*kokusaika*."

The role of JALT

The purpose of any academic association is to advance society through research and education. JALT, the largest association of its kind in Asia, and a member of the Japan Science Council, has a vested interest in advancing language education in Japan and throughout the world. One purpose of language education is to expand the borders of the mind through word and thought. When institutionalized power attempts to

constrain or curtail this purpose, and the livelihood of its members, we argue that JALT should make an unequivocal and public statement of its position on the issue of foreign faculty at public universities. It should gather signatures in support of a resolution, and present it to the Ministry of Education, as well as to all national and private universities and colleges. The responsibility of JALT extends beyond the walls of the classroom. We assert that, as an academic association, JALT has the right and the responsibility to speak out actively for the welfare of its members in the field.

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The Function of Logical Modals in Scientific Writing

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We conducted a study to identify how much certainty scientists contribute to modal verbs in scientific papers. Scientists who were native and non-native speakers of English were asked to indicate how much certainty they attribute to modals and non-modal verbs in English chemistry reports. The certainties obtained for *might* and *may* from the native speakers were close, and a t-test between them concluded no significant difference ($t = 1.105$, $df = 70$, $p = 0.27$). However, the same analysis of data from non-native subjects has clearly shown that the non-native scientists regarded *might* as conveying less certainty than *may* ($t = 4.466$, $df = 52$, $p < 0.001$). This difference may be attributed to English grammar books which state that *might* express certainty. The results suggest that ESL/EFL teachers should be aware of the importance of teaching modal verbs associated with their socio-pragmatic functions.

英語で書かれた科学論文中の推量を表す助動詞がどのように認識されているかを検証した。被験者の自然科学研究者は，英語のネイティヴ・スピーカーと日本語を第一言語とする２つのグループで，結論文に異なった助動詞と動詞を含む化学論文６報の概要を被験者に与え，論文の著者が結論に対しどの程度の確信を持っているかをパーセントで示すよう依頼した。結果の t-test 分析は，ネイティヴ・スピーカーに対しては may と might の間に確信度の差を示さなかったが ($t = 1.105$, $df = 70$, $p =$

0.27)，日本人被験者の認識では明らかに may を含む文が確信度が高いと判定した ($t = 4.466$, $df = 52$, $p < 0.001$)。ネイティヴとノンネイティヴ間のこの認識差は，might が may より弱い確信を表すと説明する多くの文法書によるのではないかと考えられ，実際の助動詞の用法を視野においたプラグマティックな英語教育の重要性を示唆している。

Introduction

Language used in science is required to reflect the precise and objective nature of science, and scientists need to pay attention to the function of words when expressing their logic. When using such modal verbs as *must*, *may*, *could*, *might* and *should* in research papers, the epistemic modality expressed with these auxiliary verbs can play an important role in expressing certainty or possibility toward findings and hypotheses. The scientist, therefore, needs to carefully select an appropriate modal verb in order to convey precisely his/her idea to the reader. English grammar books for scientists often advise that the use of such modal verbs as *may*, *might* and *could* should be avoided in scientific writing (Harada 1994; Yamamoto & Fukutake 1995). However, many scientists feel that it is necessary to use these modals to express inference in their papers, since nothing is 100% certain in science and inference is an important part of scientific research. In summarizing empirical studies on hedging in scientific discourse, Hyland (1994) points out the frequent occurrence of modal verbs in academic writing. Harada's survey (1994) also shows that scientists often use modal verbs to express conjecture in their research papers. In her study of medical English abstracts, Salager-Meyer (1992) provides evidence that modal verbs are frequently used in the data synthesis, conclusion and recommendation sections.

The use of modal verbs in general English has been studied by many linguists (Jesperson 1964; Palmer 1968; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985). Halliday (1985) gives a diagram showing probabilities expressed with propositions. This diagram rates *must* as carrying the highest probability among modal verbs. In the use of modals to express certainty or probability, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) have established a hierarchy which rates *will* as having the highest degree of certainty, followed by *must*, *should*, *may*, with *could* and *might* as having the lowest certainty. They also note that the degrees of probability expressed by these modals are not necessarily equidistant: There is a smaller gap between *may* (also *could*) and *might* than between *may* and *should* in their probability scale. This applies when the modals are used affirmatively (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983). In comparing *may* and *might* in terms of their functions, Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) also note that *might* is used to express less certainty.

The use of these modals in scientific writing has been examined by Huddleston (1971). He concludes that *may* is often used to express uncertainty or possibility; *might* is an "unreal" counterpart to *may* regarding certainty/possibility; and *must* expresses something necessarily true (Huddleston, 1971). The use of modal verbs as hedging devices in scientific writing has been discussed by many researchers (Adams 1984, Hyland 1994). Hyland (1994) claims that modals appear to be typical devices for expressing hedging in scientific writing. Although the epistemic modality for the modals has been qualitatively measured in scientific writing (Salager-Meyer, 1992), how much certainty/possibility each modal verb carries has rarely been quantified according to their empirical uses in scientific writing. It is therefore important to establish a set of quantitative criteria for the epistemic uses of modal verbs in scientific writing.

In this study, we conducted a survey to examine the epistemic uses of modal verbs such as *must*, *may* and *might* in scientific writing. The study focused on the degree

of certainty attributed to each modal verb by scientists who were either native or non-native speakers of English. We will present the statistically analyzed results of the survey, along with the interpretation of the results from pragmatic aspects of modal verbs. Finally, we will consider implications for teaching.

Method

Subjects

We divided the subjects into two groups according to whether the individual was a native or non-native speaker of English. The group of native speakers consisted of 71 natural scientists involved in chemical, physical, biological or meteorological research at universities or companies in California, Minnesota and New York State. They ranged from 27 to 65 years of age, and had presented their own research papers at least once within the last three years. Fifty-nine of them (84.3%) were male. The subject group comprising non-native speakers consisted of 53 male scientists involved in chemical, physical, medical, meteorological or oceanographic research at universities. The subjects' first language was Japanese, and their ages ranged from 30 to 58. All of the subjects had published at least one research paper of their own in English within the last three years.

Procedure

The subjects were given a questionnaire which contained six different brief passages from chemical research reports. They were asked to show how much certainty they thought the author of each paragraph had toward his/her findings stated in the final sentence of the paragraph. The certainty was indicated by placing an "X" on a percentage scale ranging from 0 to 100 %.

The questionnaires were presented in four formats (Format I through IV) of six paragraphs each. The six paragraphs were taken from the concluding parts of abstracts in "*Chemical Abstracts*," 1980, and modified to consist of three to five sentences for this study. The first and the sixth paragraphs were exactly the same in all four formats, and were added to the questionnaires as distracter paragraphs. The second, third, fourth and fifth paragraphs were the same in all formats, except for the last sentence. The last sentence of each paragraph had a different modal or non-modal verb in each format. From the second to the fifth paragraph, the sentences did not contain any words indicating certainty except for the modal verbs.

Data analysis

Data sets obtained from the native and non-native subjects were treated using the same statistical analysis from *The Number Cruncher Statistical System v. 5.6* (Hintze, 1990). In order to examine whether the degree of certainty given to each modal or non-modal verb differed according to the contents of the four paragraphs (paragraphs 2 through 5), a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed among the paragraphs for each modal verb and the non-modal verbs for both data sets. In addition, t-tests were performed between the non-modal verbs and each of the modals; between *must* and *may*, between *must* and *might*; and, between *may* and *might*. The purpose was to see if a significant difference existed between any of these pairs in terms of the degree of certainty attributed to them by both the native and non-native subjects.

Results

For both data sets obtained from the native and non-native subjects, the results of ANOVA showed no significant differences among the four paragraphs for each modal and non-modal verb. Since the only treatment for each paragraph was the use of modal verbs and the non-existence of modals in the final sentences, the degree of certainty rated in the paragraphs can thus be regarded as the degree of certainty given to each modal or non-modal verb.

The averages for certainties attributed to the verbs by the native and non-native subjects showed the same hierarchical order

for the modals and the non-modals. The non-modals obtained the highest degree of certainty (native: M = 82.3%, non-native: M = 89.2%), and *must* was rated as the second most certain (native: M = 75.4%, non-native: M = 85%). Next was *may* (native: M = 44%, non-native: M = 57.2%), with *might* having the lowest degree of certainty (native: M = 41.7%, non-native: M = 50.3%) given by the native and non-native subjects. In addition, a very significant difference was obtained between the non-modal verbs and each modal, between *must* and *may*, and between *must* and *might* in t-tests conducted between these pairs, for both the native and non-native subjects. However, the result of the t-tests between *may* and *might* showed no significant difference (t = 1.105 , df = 70 , p = 0.27) for the native speakers; 49.3% of the native subjects attributed higher certainty to *might* than to *may*. On the other hand, the same test performed for the non-native subjects exhibited a significant difference between *may* and *might* (t = 4.466, df = 52, $p < 0.001$).

Discussion

According to the results expressed in percentages, the non-modal verbs, *must*, *may* and *might* can be ordered from highest degree of certainty to lowest for both the native and non-native scientists. Although statistical analysis for the native speaker scientists shows that the certainties carried by *may* and *might* were not clearly distinguishable, the non-native subjects clearly differentiated between *may* and *might* in terms of the certainties the modals carry. The non-native subjects also attributed much higher certainties to *must* than did the native subjects.

The significance of this study can be found in the results which show there is no statistical difference between *may* and *might* in terms of certainties attributed by the native subjects; nearly 50% of the native subjects attributed higher certainty to *might* than to *may*. On the other hand, the non-native subjects felt that *may* expressed significantly higher certainty than *might*. Many English grammar books, including those for non-native speakers of English, suggest that *might* express certainty than *may*. In particular, many books for non-native speakers (Hyodo 1993; The JACET Committee on Teaching Materials, 1996; Yamamoto & Fukutake, 1995) mention that *might* expresses weaker conjecture in comparison with *may*. Also, such texts often note that *must* is used to express inevitability or strong certainty, without giving any clear comparison of *must* with non-modals (Harada 1994; The JACET Committee on Teaching Materials, 1996). This kind of description of *must* tends to give the impression that a sentence with *must* expresses higher certainty than one without any modals; this may in part be the reason why the non-native subjects lent higher certainty to *must*. However, the results in this study suggest that scientists who are native speakers of English attribute more certainty to a sentence without modal verbs than to one containing *must*, as described in Halliday (1985). If a non-native scientist uses a modal verb to express his/her inference in the way that he/she has learned from the non-sociopragmatic aspects described in the above books, a discrepancy could exist between the certainty that he/she wanted to show and the certainty that the reader infers from the modal verb.

Hinkel (1995) mentions the importance of teaching modal verbs by their pragmatic functions, rather than by their grammatical contexts only. Many studies, including Hinkel's, note that modal verbs can reflect non-native speakers' cultural and language backgrounds to the degree that they tend to use modals in contexts different from ones in which native English speakers use them (Cook, 1978; DeGarrico, 1986; Gibbs, 1990). For a non-native learner, acquiring the pragmatic meaning of a modal verb takes time since it often depends on the connotations held by a society or community where the language is spoken. The acquiring process can be

more difficult when the non-native speaker is learning English in his/her first language environment.

Conclusion

The results of this study suggest that ESL/EFL teachers should also note the sociolinguistic norm of the community where the learner intends to use English. We believe that the comparison of results between native and non-native subjects will help quantitatively identify problems that learners tend to experience in the pragmatic use of modal verbs. Also, the comparison should give more opportunities for teachers to be aware of how students use the modal verbs in their pragmatic contexts.

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Translating Questionnaires from English into Japanese: Is It Valid?

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Currently questionnaire instruments account for a large proportion of educational research. This widespread use of questionnaire instruments makes questionnaire validity an important issue. The purpose of this paper is to argue and give evidence for the thesis that if teachers engaging in questionnaire research translate questionnaire items from one language (in this case, English) into another language (in this case, Japanese), they cannot assume that the translated items are valid simply by having been translated. Even if the original questionnaire items were validated, this does not change the situation because validity is context specific and is not an abstract notion that transfers from one instrument to another. I want to argue against the assumption that a questionnaire written in English and then translated into Japanese results in an equivalent instrument. My point is not only must the original questionnaire items be validated, but the translated questionnaire items must also be validated.

近年，アンケート調査は英語教育の分野で使用される調査方法として多くの部分を占めている。アンケート調査の汎用に伴いその調査法の妥当性が益々重要な問題になってきている。本論の目的は，翻訳された(この場合，英語から日本語に翻訳された)アンケート調査というものは，それ自体が翻訳されたという時点で妥当性を失うという説を論じ立証することにある。妥当性というものは文脈特有のものであり調査から調査に転移するという抽象概念ではないため，元のアンケート調査項目の妥当性が立証されたとしても，翻訳により妥当性を失うことに変わりはない。ここでは，英語で作成されたアンケートが日本語に翻訳されたアンケート調査に相当するという仮定に反証したい。また，論点は本来のアンケート項目の妥当性の証明だけでなく，翻訳されたアンケート項目の妥当性の証明も必要であるということである。

Introduction

Some researchers (Shimizu, 1995; Widdows & Voller, 1991) have made statistical inferences based on questionnaire items which were written originally in English, and then translated into Japanese. Neither of these studies gave reasons for the translation, although we can suppose that they did so to ensure item comprehension by the Japanese participants in their studies. The idea that translation of items from L1 to L2 enables comprehension by L2 native speakers is probably a widely held belief. For example, one colleague who read an earlier draft of this article pointed out that it seemed intuitively obvious that translation would be beneficial for some students. In both papers cited above, the translated instruments were aimed at making inferences about students' needs or attitudes. Widdows and Voller wanted to know if their Japanese students' needs were being met by traditional teaching methods, and Shimizu wanted to know if her students had different attitudes toward Japanese teachers of English as opposed to foreign teachers of English.

Research such as that cited above raises the question of what it means for an instrument to have been validated. Put simply, to validate an instrument such as an achievement test or a questionnaire at least three things have to be done (for a more complete description see Griffee, 1997). First, the construct underlying the questionnaire items has to be defined, which is to say "before developing a test of any construct, one should clearly and explicitly

express what one wants to test" (Most & Zeidner, 1995, p. 482). Second, the questionnaire must be piloted to show how the items perform. This requires data analysis including evidence to what extent the instrument has reliability (Griffee, 1996). Third, after the administration, the test maker has to provide evidence showing how well the test is measuring the stated construct (Brown, 1988, p.101). In this paper, I wish to raise two questions, present evidence from the literature regarding the problems of translation, and finally offer a practical alternative solution.

Two questions

The first question has to do with the validation of the original test instrument items, and the second question has to do with the validation of the translated document. I will refer to the original English instrument as the *E-doc* and the resulting Japanese translation instrument as the *J-doc*. I will use the terms "test," "instrument," and "questionnaire" interchangeably.

The first question is, was the E-doc validated? In the two studies previously cited, the constructs underlying the questionnaire were not defined, no reliability information was provided, and no evidence was provided to show that the instruments were measuring the constructs. This is not unusual in the field of TESOL in general, and in Japan in particular. As far as I know, no article reporting questionnaire data in *The Language Teacher* has ever reported adequate validation information. In the two studies cited above, the translation could not be valid since the original English language instrument on which it was based was not validated. The answer to the first question is, therefore, no.

The second question is, was the J-doc validated? I want to argue that the translated J-doc becomes a new instrument in itself and has to be revalidated as a separate instrument. Even if the E-doc had been validated, the validation does not automatically carry over to the J-doc. We have to have additional evidence that the J-doc is measuring what it purports to be measuring. The mere fact that the students speak the Japanese language (ignoring the issue of foreign students in Japan) as their L1 and that the J-doc has been translated into the Japanese language is not enough to ensure validation. For example, if you are a native English speaker, you can ask yourself two questions. The first question is: Have you ever read an English sentence which was translated from Japanese (or another language) into English and been left wondering what it was trying to say? The second question is: Have you ever read an English sentence written originally in English by a writer you knew to be an English L1 writer and still been left wondering what it meant? Most English native speakers can answer yes to both questions. That this is the case is exactly why validation information is required in the first place. Even if the J-doc had been written originally in Japanese by a Japanese L1 writer, it would still require validation evidence.

Evidence from the literature

Is it possible for test items to be validly translated? Many societies acknowledge, and in some cases, revere certain translated documents. Without translation, Christians would not have access to their scriptures, and the world would be without the understandings and wisdom supplied by classical thinkers such as Plato and Aristotle. In the modern era, bookstores regularly sell translated documents such as philosophical essays, novels, and poetry. While it is not my intention to call this practice into question, even here, things are not as obvious as they might first appear. Miller (1992) considers translation in the sense mentioned above, and mentions four problems encountered by virtually all translators: (a) the syntax of one language has no equivalent in another language; (b) words in one language do not have exact meanings in another language; (c) a word in one language has a spread of meanings that

does not cover the spread of meanings in another language; and (d) words that can be used figuratively in one language cannot be used figuratively in another language. Miller concludes:

> Anyone who has translated will know the odd experience of being able to read and understand the original perfectly, as well as having native mastery of the target language, but of running constantly into unexpected and perhaps even insuperable difficulties in trying to turn the source text into the target language. The arrow keeps going awry and missing the target. (1992, p. 124)

It is, however, one thing to read a translated novel and another thing to read a translated questionnaire item.

Supposing that the E-doc were validated, what then? Widdows and Voller conducted a needs analysis in which they had translated a questionnaire asking students about their teaching and learning preferences. They wanted to know the extent to which students were satisfied with the teaching style they were exposed to in their classrooms. Widdows and Voller themselves suggest the difficulty, if not impossibility, of a valid translation. They state, "It is interesting to note that certain concepts quite fundamental to current EFL methodology proved impossible to render into straightforward Japanese" (1991, p. 128). They add that another difficulty arose from Japanese cultural understanding of learning styles. One item wanted to know if the student learned better when the teacher took an interest in them as a person. The problem was with the word "interest" because they found "it was impossible to eradicate entirely the connotation of sexual interest in the Japanese version" (Widdows & Voller, 1991, p. 128).

In addition to the problems of translation, I turn to the results of two empirical studies which suggest that questionnaire items written in different languages carry different meanings, which raises serious problems with translation as a way of ensuring meaning. Yoshida (1990) conducted an experiment with second language learners (Japanese returnees who had lived in the U.S. for at least two years and had attended American schools). Thirty-five Japanese returnees were the experimental group, a group of 32 monolingual Japanese students in Japan were one control group, and a group of 21 monolingual American students in America were another control group. All three groups were given a word association task consisting of words from nature, daily life, society and ideas, and culture. The control groups answered in their own language. The experimental group was asked to respond in Japanese to the Japanese words and in English to the English words. The two lists of words were given in different order and a week apart. Yoshida compared the responses for each word, grouped the responses into semantic categories, and calculated the degree of agreement between the experimental group and each of the control groups. His analysis showed that for the society and ideas as well as the culture categories, "the bilingual group responded quite differently depending on which language they were using" (Yoshida, 1990, p. 22). For example, in giving word associations with the word "freedom" the experimental group gave responses such as *responsibility*, *myself*, *human beings*, and *independence*, words which did not appear at all with the Japanese translation.

In another empirical study, Sakamoto (1996) investigated Hyland's (1994) use of translated questionnaire items adapted from Reid's (1987) learning style preferences questionnaire. Sakamoto's students were two groups of Japanese women aged 20 to 22 years of age at Bunka Woman's University in Tokyo. Hyland had Reid's items translated from English to Japanese, and Sakamoto used these translated items except that she retranslated four of the items she thought misleading. Sakamoto administered both the English items and the

translated items to her students allowing time between administrations to reduce the possibility of students simply remembering answers. She then compared the answers on the two questionnaires to see if the students answered the Japanese version differently than the English version and found that "about half of the 65 participants answered the same questionnaire statements differently in English and Japanese" (Sakamoto, 1996, p. 83). Sakamoto concludes:

> Clearly, then, there were differences between the questionnaire results in English and Japanese. The high discrepancy in this study warns us that the researcher should not simply consider translation as the answer to help the respondent understand the questionnaire better. (1996, p. 87)

An alternative solution

If the translation of questionnaire items creates a second document which must itself be validated, and even then raises doubts that the items in L1 will be understood and answered in the same way as the items in L2, what can be done to create questionnaire items in which we can have some confidence with regard to comprehensibility? After a questionnaire has been created and looked at by a number of competent teachers who make a judgement on content, I would suggest showing the questionnaire to a student panel; that is, a group of students similar to those for whom the questionnaire was developed. Be sure that you include lower level students on your panel. By student panel, I do not mean that students must meet at the same time in the same place. Let me give an example of how this can operate in real life. In validating a questionnaire purporting to measure the construct "confidence" in speaking EFL, I went to the school cafeteria and hung around drinking coffee until I found some students I recognized as having low English proficiency (former students). I showed them the questionnaire and asked them not to answer the questions, but to look at the items and circle any word they could not understand. Most of the items were not checked, but one item, "I am willing to talk to English native speakers" was checked by more than one student. The word that was circled was "willing." I was baffled because I was sure that the word "will" was known to even those students. In subsequent interviews with other students on this item, I found that indeed the word "will" was known to them, but the word in the form of "willing" was not. The phrase "I will" was understood, but the phrase "I am willing" was not. I changed the item to "I will talk to English native speakers," and it passed a second student panel. Questionnaire validation involves more than a student panel, but showing items to a student panel is, I believe, a step which makes translation unnecessary. In addition, presenting the results from your student panel constitutes one kind of validation evidence.

Conclusion

I would like to conclude with two points. I am not trying to find fault with the two studies cited. I support Widdows and Voller as well as Shimizu in their research. Nevertheless, and this is my second point, we are now more informed as to what is involved in the issues of reliability and validity. Among the things that we are currently aware of is that validation must be built into the design of the questionnaire from the very beginning. We also also know that piloting and analyzing data from the pilot must precede primary data collection. And we know that data resulting from questionnaires must also be analyzed and reported. To this list, I would like to add that we know that translation is not a short-cut solution. Translation results in a new document which itself must be piloted and analyzed.

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Demystifying the STEP Test

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While nearly three million people take the STEP test each year, information about test development and evaluation criteria is not readily available. Further, apart from the monthly STEP newsletter and annual research bulletin (both written in Japanese), there is almost no opportunity for the people involved—test-makers, test-givers, test-takers, and teachers—to interact. This is of particular importance to the second-stage STEP test, in which the examinee is evaluated in a private interview. The need for feedback from examiners and examinees on their knowledge and impressions about the test is obvious. This paper reports the results of questionnaires and interviews conducted among a group of examiners and examinees who participated in the STEP interview tests in July, 1998. It explores three areas: (a) test preparation; (b) test contents; and (c) test evaluation. Feedback from examiners and examinees are summarized and a set of recommendations is presented.

毎年300万人以上の受験者を擁する英語検定（英検）は，テスト開発や評価基準の情報の入手が難しい。さらに，日本語による月刊の STEP newsletter と annual research bulletin の2誌以外にはテストに関与する人々—作成者，実施者，受験者，そして教師—の意見交流の機会はない。こうした情報の少なさは，個別面談方式で評価が下される英検二次試験でとりわけ問題である。試験官および受験者から英検二次

試験に関する知識や実施後の印象についてフィードバックを得る必要があるのは言うまでもない。この論文は 1998 年 7 月の英検二次試験に参加した試験官および受験者に行ったアンケートとインタビューの結果を報告するものである。(1) 事前準備，(2) テスト内容，(3) テスト評価の三点について，試験官および受験者から得た意見や感想の要約と提言を行っている。

Introduction

Since its inception in 1964, STEP (The Society for Testing English Proficiency), the organization responsible for producing the STEP test, has operated largely in secrecy. The test itself is no secret: Nearly three million people take the STEP test each year. However, information about test development and evaluation criteria is not readily available.

Apart from the bi-monthly STEP magazine (*STEP'98 Eigo Joho*) and annual research bulletin (*STEP Bulletin*) sent to examiners, and the monthly newsletter available by subscription (*The Eiken Times*), there is almost no opportunity for the people involved—test-makers, test-givers, test-takers, and teachers—to interact. This is of particular importance to the second-stage interview test, which has received little attention. Therefore, the need for feedback from examiners and examinees on their knowledge and impressions about the test is all the more important.

This paper reports the results of questionnaires and interviews conducted among a group of examiners and examinees who participated in the 3rd, pre-2nd and 2nd grade STEP interview tests on July 19, 1998. It explores three areas: (a) test preparation, (b) test contents, and (c) test evaluation. Responses are summarized, and a set of recommendations for STEP is presented.

Overview

Participants

Forty-eight examiners (40 male and 8 female) at three test sites in Sapporo participated in this study. Their average age was 45, and their testing experience ranged from 2-20 years.

A total of 138 examinees were randomly selected from over 1,500 3rd, pre-2nd, and 2nd grade examinees at the same three test sites. Of this number, 130 completed a written survey in Japanese and from this group, 15 participated in a follow-up interview, also in Japanese. Their average age was 18.7 years. The majority were first-time test takers for the grade that day (22% and 7% were taking the 2nd grade test for the second and third times, respectively; 30% were taking the pre-2nd grade for the second time; and 3% were taking the 3rd grade for the second time). More than half of the examinees for all three grades said that they took the test in order to evaluate their English ability. Nearly one-third of the pre-2nd grade examinees took the test for university entrance exam exemption or entrance exam preparation practice. One-third of the 2nd grade examinees took the test to enhance their résumés for job hunting purposes.

Test procedure and evaluation

The 2nd, pre-2nd, and 3rd grades follow the same format for the 6-8 minute interviews:

1. The examinee enters the test room, greets the examiner, gives the examiner the evaluation card, and sits down.
2. The examiner asks two or three warm-up questions.
3. The examiner hands the test card to the examinee, who has 20 seconds to study the short text and accompanying illustration.
4. The examinee reads the text aloud and answers five oral test questions related the text and illustration.
5. The examinee returns the test card to the examiner and leaves the room.

Examiners use a five-point scale (1 = poor; 5 = excellent) to evaluate the oral reading, the five questions, and the examinee's attitude, for a total of 35 points (STEP converts the attitude score to a three-point scale so that the final score is out of 33).

Test preparation

Examiners

Two weeks prior to the test, examiners received a leaflet in Japanese in the-mail from STEP, entitled, "A Good Interviewer Is ..." (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, 1998, July). The main points are summarized as follows [this and all translations which follow are mine]:

1. During the test warm-up, the examiner makes the examinee feel relaxed and welcome by asking easy questions in a friendly manner.
2. During the test, the examiner maintains eye contact with the examinee when asking questions and listening to the answers. Appropriate responses to questions are: filler ("Wow," "I see," "Hmm"), facial expressions, and eye contact. However, these responses should not reveal the examiner's evaluation.
3. The examiner should end the test in a positive way, with "I've enjoyed talking with you" or "Have a good day."

On the morning of the test, a 30-minute preparation meeting is held at the test site. Examiners receive their evaluation manuals, which contain the test items, sample answers, and information about how to grade the test (in Japanese). The examiners listen to a cassette tape which contains one example for each grade of a perfectly rendered interview test.

While most were satisfied with the content and length of the preparation meeting, and the content of the evaluation manual, four examiners thought the meeting was too short, and three examiners felt that a more detailed written description of how to evaluate answers was needed. Specifically, instructions for how many points to deduct for certain kinds of mistakes, and samples of evaluations of the reading and attitude sections, in addition to more specific examples of answers to the five main questions were requested.

Examinees

Of this group of examinees, 16% prepared for the test with the help of their Japanese teachers at high school or university; 21% prepared alone; and 23% used a STEP test preparation text (Benesse Corporation, 1997; ECC, 1998; Obunsha, 1997, 1998). Twenty percent said they didn't prepare for the test. The remaining 20% used other methods, such as practicing with a friend or with a native speaker of English.

Test contents

1. Warm-up

Examiners.

According to Benesse Corporation (1997), the purpose of the free conversation warm-up is twofold: (a) to confirm the examinee's name and test grade; and (b) to help the examinee relax and get used to speaking English before the test begins. Sample questions include: *Do you like music?/What kind of music do you like?*; *What time did you get up this morning?*; and *How did you get here today?*

The examiners surveyed reported a number of different warm-up question topics they used in addition to the above: hobbies, favorite subject, summer vacation plans, age, and future plans. When asked their opinions on the effectiveness of the warm-up questions, the examiners' responses were varied. Half thought the warm-up had a positive effect. In addition to fulfilling the two goals stated above, several commented that the warm-up helped create a natural

communicative setting in English.

The other half of the examiners felt that the warm-up was ineffective or at least problematic for the following reasons:

1. It depends on the examinee. Those who are not used to speaking English or who are already nervous will become more nervous.
2. It depends on the examiner's speaking speed, pronunciation, choice of questions, and general demeanor.
3. It doesn't help examinees relax, but it does help them get accustomed to the examiner's way of speaking English.
4. It is most suitable for pre-2nd and 2nd grade examinees, but since most 3rd grade examinees have little or no speaking experience, they cannot speak well and therefore become more nervous.
5. Free conversation should be conducted at the end of the test instead, when students are more relaxed.
6. The warm-up should be abolished since examinees think they are being evaluated on their answers in this section.

Examinees.

Three-quarters of the examinees felt the warm-up was generally effective in helping them relax and get used to hearing and speaking English. However, they noted that it had no relationship to their performance on the test: Even if they were relaxed and spoke well during the warm-up, they still became tense and made mistakes during the test. All of the examinees who felt that the warm-up was ineffective said it made them more nervous.

Feedback

Examiners.

STEP specifically states that examiners should not give examinees any indication, either verbally or through gestures, of the result of their performance (Nihon Eigo Kentei Kyokai, 1998, July). In this group, 24% responded that they did, in fact, give some form of feedback to examinees, and commented as follows:

1. It is impossible not to give some kind of feedback in the course of communication.
2. No response makes the examinee nervous.
3. Feedback and evaluation are not the same; when giving feedback, examiners are not necessarily communicating their evaluations.

Problems with giving feedback noted were:

1. It may mislead examinees into thinking they answered correctly when they did not (or vice versa), so it's better to be impartial and not give feedback.
2. It may distract examinees if they misunderstand the meaning of the feedback.
3. If the feedback is negative, examinees will become more nervous.

Examinees.

Over 90% of pre-2nd and 2nd grade examinees were in favor of examiner feedback during the test. The number was lower among 3rd grade examinees (79%). Comments from all three groups included the following:

1. I could confirm that I communicated my answer.
2. Feedback keeps the conversation

moving, and is essential to create a natural exchange.
3. I can tell whether my answer is right or wrong.
4. If the feedback is positive, I'll be encouraged, but if it is negative...

Test items

Examiners.

The examiners had several suggestions for changes to the current test questions and testing procedure:

1. The 20-second reading preparation time should be increased to 30 seconds.
2. The warm-up should be formalized: The questions should be standardized and the responses should be scored.
3. The "Tell me as much as you can about . . ." question about the illustration on the pre-2nd grade test is misleading as it does not specify the amount of information required, even though the score is based on the amount of information provided. This question should be more specific and reworded as, "Say three sentences about . . .".
4. The 3rd grade test, questions that begin, "Please look at the passage" should be changed because examinees at this level do not know the word "passage."

Examinees

Most examinees were satisfied with the current test format. Some suggestions were:

1. The 20-second reading preparation time should be extended to 30 seconds.
2. The warm-up should be scored.
3. There should be time for free conversation at the end of the test in addition to the current warm-up.

Test Evaluation

Examiners

Some examiners were dissatisfied with the information provided in their evaluation manuals. More detailed, clearer descriptions were requested. Two specific questions were about the reading section:

1. Can five points be given only to the examinee who is able to read like a native speaker?
2. How should subjective terms like "satisfactory" be interpreted?

Similar questions were raised about other sections of the test. The attitude section was criticized as having the least clear criteria since the differences between "very satisfactorily" (5 points), "somewhat satisfactorily" (4 points), "unsatisfactorily" (3 points), and "quite unsatisfactorily" (2 points) could not be understood. Also noted was the difficulty in understanding the difference between "natural manner" [*shizen na taido*] (5 points) and "almost natural manner" [*hobo shizen na taido*] (4 points).

Scoring the answers to the five questions was noted by some as problematic since sample answers were not always given for all scores (1-5). For example, a typical question about a picture on the 3rd-grade test, such as, "Where are the apples?" might have only two sample answers provided:

They are on the table. (5 points)
In the basket. (4 points)

There are no guidelines for what kinds of answers would generate scores of 1, 2, or 3 points. Further, both of these sample answers are correct. However, since the second response is not a complete sentence, only 4 points can be given. According to the sample answers found in test preparation books by Obunsha (1997; 1998), only complete sentence answers can be given five points on the 3rd grade test. However, for the pre-2nd or 2nd grade, if the content of the answer is correct, the subject or predicate may be omitted without the score being lowered.

Examinees

The 15 examinees who participated in the follow-up interview were asked about the evaluation system. More than half did not know that the warm-up questions were not part of the test evaluation per se. Only one examinee was aware of the attitude evaluation category. Most knew nothing about the evaluation criteria because they are generally not available to the public. One exception is the STEP test correspondence training program produced by Benesse Corporation (1997). Their video presents a demonstration test and gives information and hints about aspects of the test that are found only in the official STEP test evaluation manual, a confidential document. The video explains that the warm-up conversation is not scored. It gives a detailed explanation of what the attitude category means and advice on how to meet the criteria for this section. It also explains that the evaluation of attitude begins from the moment the examinee enters the room. This last point is published in Obunsha's texts (1998) as well, but does not seem to be well known, at least among the examinees interviewed.

Recommendations

Based on the above information from the examiners and examinees who participated in this study, the following recommendations will be made to STEP:

1. STEP should give more information about the test contents and evaluation to both examiners and examinees. For examiners, this should take the form of more detailed instructions and more clearly worded criteria in the evaluation manual, and examples (both audio and written) of less than perfect answers and how to score them.

   For examinees, details should be included with the application form for the test, similar to that of the TOEFL application (Educational Testing Service, 1998) to ensure that all applicants have correct information about the test. If some of the criteria were made publicly known, it would help reduce the inconsistencies and misunderstandings about the test that currently exist.
2. STEP should provide regular opportunities to communicate with examiners and examinees about the tests. This could take the form of occasional STEP seminars for examiners and examinees, written questionnaires eliciting feedback such as the one used in this study, or an e-mail discussion bulletin board.
3. Based on the concern expressed about the need for careful selection of warm-up questions, STEP should consider standardizing questions for each grade and publish sample lists for use by both examiners and examinees. Further, the effectiveness of the warm-up for the 3rd grade should be reviewed to determine whether it actually serves its intended purpose at this level.

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Action Research (AR) is seen as a small-scale, situational form of classroom research focusing on a particular problem in an individual teacher's classroom. The intention of the research is to gain understanding of the problem and to possibly solve it (LoCastro, 1994). Each of the speakers in this colloquium offered the story of their experience with AR, sharing both product and process. One explored the impact of various styles of feedback on student writing. Another used AR to create concrete guidelines for his use of affirmative feedback on student production. A third investigated ways of incorporating effective pronunciation work in her classes. The other examined the usefulness of mind-mapping in content-based global issues discussion courses. This paper first illustrates the steps of AR with examples from each speaker's work. Following the introduction, each speaker relates the process and product of their research.

アクション・リサーチ（以下 AR）は，教育現場において教師が抱える問題に焦点を当てた小規模で状況的なクラスルーム・リサーチであり，各教師が自分に特有な問題についての理解を深め，できればそれを解決することをその主な目的とする（LoCastro 1994, p. 5）。本コロキアの発表者はそれぞれ，自身の AR の体験について語り，AR のプロセスと結果を参加者と共有した。各発表者の内容は (1) 学生のライティングに対してさまざまなタイプのフィードバックを与えた影響の検証，(2) 学生の発話に対する肯定的フィードバックに関するガイドラインの制作とその妥当性の検証，(3) 教室内での効果的な発音練習の検証，(4) 国際問題についてのディスカッションをその内容とする content-based のクラスでのマインド・マッピングを導入した効果の検証であった。本稿ではまず，AR のプロセスの各段階について述べ，その上で，各発表者のARのプロセスと結果を紹介していく。

Action Research (AR) is one way for teachers, as professionals, to enhance their professional development through structured action and reflection. The exact procedures followed in AR can vary, but there is general agreement that they include the following steps in some form: (a) Noticing a problem, (b) Investigation, (c) Formation of a question, (d) Intervention, or action that offers solutions, (e) Data collection and analysis. Making the findings known is not always included in the steps, but was mentioned by the speakers in this colloquium as a factor motivating them to complete the AR. Public sharing may inspire more discipline in carrying out the process, as well as deeper reflectivity during what can sometimes become a private professional pursuit.

Noticing a problem

AR allows the teacher to begin working immediately on improving their teaching practices after identifying areas that could be better. To identify what is personally useful, the teacher-researcher might consider where a gap exists between what they would like student performance to be and what it is. Three of the speakers in this colloquium identified problems of this type: in student writing, pronunciation, and oral expression. The other speaker noticed a gap between his actual teaching practice and how he wanted to perform. He recognized that he did not

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have a set of criteria for giving feedback that was based on his specific student needs.

Investigation
During the investigation stage, the teacher-researcher learns more about the topic that they have chosen to research. Each of our four speakers did background reading as a way of investigating their topic. In addition, Janina researched the lesson planning records of her students' previous classes. Neil also reflected with other teachers, while Shin videotaped and observed his own teaching.

Forming a question
At this stage the teacher narrows the focus of the investigation by posing a question that further action will attempt to answer. The teacher-researcher may want to know if a particular practice, such as mind-mapping, can solve the initial problem. The teacher-researcher may, on the other hand, wonder which technique, among a variety of techniques, can effectively improve a problem situation. Neil, for example, asked what kind of feedback on student writing resulted in the longest papers and most revisions.

Intervention or action
Here the teacher-researcher introduces one or more different techniques, activities or types of material that offer solutions to the problem and attempt to answer the research question. Neil's question, looking for a type of feedback that would help students write and revise, made it necessary for him to introduce a range of feedback types. He used three classes for his research. In contrast, Richard asked if mind-mapping (one particular activity) might help students in expressing themselves in more detail. He intervened in his class by introducing and collecting data on that one activity. Shin surveyed his students to find out what kinds of affirmative feedback they preferred; he then altered his behavior to meet those student-generated guidelines.

Data collection and analysis
It is useful to first consider what kind of data will best answer the research question before examining what techniques might best serve the collection of data. A variety of techniques can be used in data collection and analysis: interviews, think-alouds, field-notes, observations, journals, and evaluation, for example. The speakers in the colloquium showed a wide range of choices. Neil compared the number of revisions and length of students' papers with the kind of feedback he had given them. Janina used audio recordings of before and after the intervention to evaluate improvement in student performance. Both Neil and Janina collected student comments. Shin used surveys, while Richard kept a daily log in journal format.

In the following sections, more detailed AR accounts are provided by the individual speakers.

Feedback in process writing (Neil Cowie)
I teach an undergraduate university writing class of 20-30 students in which two inter-related issues seem to surface regularly:

- How can I get my students to rewrite more often given the constraints of the class?
- What kind of feedback works best?

As a result of reading and reflecting with colleagues, I decided to take four actions:

1. Try a variety of feedback methods and see how students responded.
2. Give written teacher comments that focus on giving supportive global comments and fewer local ones.
3. Emphasize in lessons that rewriting is very important to improvement
4. Give students more class time to write.

Intervention and results
I tried a number of different feedback methods spread over three groups of students. Group one (written teacher comments only) and group two (peer

response, reformulation and written teacher comments) produced similar results in the overall number of reports written, while the number of students who did any rewriting at all was very small. I cannot say that any one of the methods was more effective than the others—the net effect, at least in terms of numbers of reports written, was similar from one to two.

For the third group, however, I used audio-taped feedback. This led to different results, which may mean that this method of feedback does have an impact on both the amount that students write initially and the number of times that they rewrite. From a similar number of students, I received double the number of reports compared to group one and two, and double the number of students took to rewriting.

I believe students gain a lot from the audio-tapes (e.g., extra listening practice, longer teacher comments) compared to written feedback. More importantly, however, I think the students felt their teacher cared about them; as a result, they were more motivated to write. I can illustrate this by quoting some student evaluation comments.

1. *The tape that you gave me made me astonished because your comment for my homework in the tape was very long and very polite.*
2. *I was truly surprised at it (the tape) because you may have taken much time to give all of us.*

Implications

It seems important to continue to give feedback in a variety of ways as different methods may appeal to different students. I have tried to emphasize comments that are supportive and that address global concerns. My initial instincts are that if students are going to rewrite their drafts, then global feedback early in the process will be helpful. However, if students are not going to rewrite at all, it might be better to focus feedback on surface mechanics, particularly if the students are at a low level.

I have found my approach to research to have been somewhat organic in that one thing has lead to another but not necessarily in the most logical way. I view this as all part of the learning process. What I have learned is to try to anticipate more what kind of data I will need, and to back that up with other views. For example, I had all the student reports, evaluations and course records, but I did not have other possible triangulation data.

Teachers develop in different ways. For me, the action research cycle, involving reading, data collection, reflection on the data and cooperation with colleagues, has been stimulating in many ways. It has made me fundamentally fascinated in learning far more about teaching writing.

Making progress with pronunciation (Janina Tubby)

I work as on-site instructor assigned to the R&D department of a major U.S. multinational company in Kobe. The majority of employees are Japanese, but there are also many Chinese, and people from other countries including Indians, Americans and Koreans. English is used for the majority of meetings and written communication.

At department meetings, I noticed that although employees were generally able to discuss and present in English, pronunciation stood out as an area of concern. In particular, Japanese and Chinese employees were sometimes incomprehensible to each other. This also proved to be the case in one class where Japanese and Chinese students mixed together. Moreover, in early interview sessions, the five students in this class expressed dissatisfaction about having to work together and not being able to understand each other properly.

I looked at previous class records and found that past teachers' pronunciation work had generally tended to focus on Japanese learners' problems at a minimal pair level. More often, however, discourse pronunciation had received little focus. I

decided I needed a new approach that could work for both the Japanese and Chinese class members.

I decided to tie pronunciation to the presentation section of classes under the heading of "effective delivery." I felt that preparing presentations gave students more of a chance to plan what they wanted to say; they could therefore focus on issues of pronunciation better. First, I introduced Brazil's (1997) concept of the "tone unit." Brazil illustrates how we tend to divide our speech into tone units or chunks (I used the term "chunks" and adopted the technique of *chunking* when I introduced it to students). Chunking refers to the tendency we have, particularly when presenting, to speak in sections of language with pauses between the chunks, rather than pausing equally between individual words. Effective speakers chunk naturally, in other words.

In the beginning, students listened to taped presentations and marked on a copy of the tapescript where the speaker paused and later which words were stressed. They then tried to read along in time to the tape (shadow read). Finally, students wrote their own short presentations, divided them up into chunks, and read them to the class or onto tapes for homework.

My second intervention involved a look at intonation patterns focusing on proclaiming and referring patterns as identified by Brazil (1997). In the beginning, I simplified Brazil's concept, so that we worked simply on keeping the voice up when sentences were unfinished and then dropping at the end of sentences. Students quickly grasped this concept, but one student pointed out that this technique relied on an over-simplification. This led to a deeper look at patterns of rising and falling intonation, as well as adoption of the idea that we tend to raise our voices when expressing new information (proclaiming) and drop our voices when expressing known or shared information (referring). With varying degrees of success, students attempted to incorporate this insight into further presentations. The practice of shadow reading to tapes continued to be assigned.

To evaluate the effectiveness of the activities, I asked students to do a number of things. They kept diaries and reflected on their progress. They were also required to tape themselves, to reflect on their performance in meeting and presentation simulations and to analyze those tapes. I took "before" and "after" tapes, which, according to both students and their supervisors, showed improvement in comprehensibility. Students also reported an increase in confidence and motivation in giving presentations. All expressed interest in continuing this work in the next term, with some responding very enthusiastically. As one student put it, *I think chunking is a key for me.*

Teacher affirmative feedback toward learners' oral production (Shinichi Yokomizo)

There exist two types of affirmative feedback in a language classroom: "acknowledging a correct answer" and "praise" (Nunan 1991). While both teachers and researchers agree with the former's significance and necessity of use, opinions are divided about the latter. In addition, teachers tend to use affirmative feedback unsystematically according to their own intuition and miss investigating the validity of their preferred practice. All this made me believe that it was necessary to clarify my own behavior as a teacher and to establish concrete guidelines for the use of affirmative feedback.

By analyzing my own behavior based upon videotaped classroom activities, it became clear that I never delivered any "praise" and solely employed several types of "acknowledging a correct answer" such as saying nothing but nodding; saying *Un* (yeah), or *Un soo desu ne* (yeah, that's right, isn't it?); uttering *Un* (yeah) followed by a model sentence. I compared my routine practice with the results from a questionnaire about my learners' preferences with nine types of affirmative feedback.

This comparison suggested that it was necessary to modify my behavior in several ways. It also helped me draw up the following guidelines for using affirmative feedback:

1. Avoid giving only a silent nod.
2. Use *Un* (Yeah) and *Hai* (Yes) when a learner correctly repeats what the teacher said in one-exchange dialogues.
3. Use *Un* (Yeah) followed by model sentence when a learner correctly answers the teacher's question in one-exchange dialogues.
4. Use *Un, soo desu ne* (Yeah, that's right, isn't it?) and *Yoku dekimashita* (You did well) when learners correctly question and answer each other in dialogues of two or more exchanges.

The next step for me was to investigate the validity of this altered practice by asking for learners' reactions after three weeks of experiencing the change. This final process suggested the necessity of two minor changes in the guideline: (a) Change *Un* (yeah) to *Hai* (Yes); (b) *Un* (Yeah) followed by model sentence should be employed with other types of feedback such as *Un* (Yeah), *Hai* (Yes)' and *Un, soo desu ne* (Yeah, that's right, isn't it?) when a learner correctly answers the teacher's question even in one exchange dialogue.

This procedure not only enabled me to establish my own practical guidelines for affirmative feedback, but also suggested the necessity of further investigation: (a) This action research concentrated on affirmative feedback in a specific classroom activity called "Practice in Context" in which contexts are provided by visual aids, and learners are able to use in meaningful communication the mechanical pattern they have previously practiced. This AR cycle did not concern affirmative feedback in other classroom activities, which makes it necessary to establish guidelines for other activities. (b) Before this AR cycle, I had held that *Yoku dekimashita* (You did well) should not be used toward adult learners, since it includes the connotation that a superior looks down on an inferior. It would be interesting to investigate whether the learners also hold to such a view or did not know about it; and if not, to investigate possible reasons for divergence between my own perception and that of my learners. (c) This action research treated the learners as an homogenous group; it did not address any possible differences between learners. It is therefore necessary to investigate how factors such as learners' language competence, learning style and personality might influence their reactions toward affective feedback.

My action research clarifies the fact that teachers' intuitive beliefs regarding "what should be done" in a language classroom do not necessarily match learners' preferences. It is important, in my view, for teachers to attempt to objectify their behavior through AR-type investigations.

Using mind-mapping in content-based courses (Richard Hodge)

This Action Research project focused on the use of mind-mapping in content-based English language courses for first-year university students. Mind-mapping is an organizational technique of charting topics and details in a tree-like form. In the center of the map is a main theme from which essential ideas radiate and expand in a branch-like manner. Finally, the branches form a connected nodal structure.

I set up an experimental cycle that was adjusted in successive lessons according to my class observations. First, I introduced lesson content via reading, or short video clips. Next, I had students make mind-maps to note their grasp of the input, and their thoughts. My goal was to see if mind-mapping would provide a successful framework for students to disclose more of their thoughts. After this, the mind maps were viewed and discussed in pairs and small groups. At the end of topic units, I had students make another mind-map to see if these "before" and "after" samplings would indicate a richer schema building

progress and show a greater understanding of a topic area. Throughout, I kept a journal describing class preparations, lesson observations, and post lesson reflections on what transpired, a summary of which follows.

In the first experimental cycle, students made mind-maps about a reading on junk food in school cafeterias. While some students exhibited a clear understanding of the material, which was evidenced by the order of ideas and supporting details shown on their papers, many of the mind-maps were stilted or revealed confusion. They also provided inadequate description.

Students' difficulties with giving clear description prompted me to modify the mind-mapping activities in the subsequent lessons by providing more structure, i.e., partially completed mind-maps with several entries provided as models indicating their line of reasoning. In addition, as a pre-reading exercise, I elicited from the whole class a mind-map about what they already knew regarding a topic.

In one case, when doing this class-generated mind-map, students first spoke in threes about the topic. In one group, there was a student who knew a lot about the subject but lacked relevant vocabulary in English. By first sharing his ideas in his group, partners were able to collaborate and provide translations of essential terms. The mind-map subsequently generated on the board allowed the whole class to share, and be acknowledged for their collective knowledge. This collaborative work provided a way of focusing the class on the topic, and building a stronger base of understanding on which to approach the readings and video content. As students' output grew, I felt less tempted to dominate discussion with my thoughts. I felt I could act more as a guide and supporter for students to develop their language and understanding of the topics.

A week after students gave individual presentations on health topics in small groups, they generated new mind-maps from memory. These papers helped me immensely in differentiating between students who were under-prepared for their presentation, from those who were merely shy. The quiz allowed students to convey their knowledge and opinions in a form that was both quick to generate and easy to evaluate.

By formalizing my experiments in the classroom as Action Research, the weight of lesson planning was transformed from a laborious endeavor into an engaging problem-solving process. By sharing this mind-mapping research with the teaching community, I have received valuable feedback including useful variations and extensions that I can now use in my teaching.

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Creativity in High School Oral Communication B Classes

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Learning comes from within the student. That is the basis of my approach to teaching. However, without supportive external factors, stimuli and a safe environment to foster learning, students remain in a passive, and often non-receptive, state. Through years of formal training, classroom research and a lot of trial and error, I have discovered various ways that help bring out the students' creativity and eagerness to learn that which is often suppressed in the secondary school environment. I would like to share with the readers projects and activities that are based upon my approach to teaching languages. My approach is a combination of Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle, Cooperative Learning and my own philosophy. I will also detail the steps involved in student-centered projects based on both original material and material from published texts.

学習というものは生徒の中からやってくる。このことは筆者の教え方の基礎となっている。しかし，この学習を支えるための良い環境が整わなければ，生徒は消極的なままであろう。生徒の創造性や学習への熱意は通常，中学・高校の環境の中では抑えられている。筆者は数年に渡る研究や教室での実践，試行錯誤を経て，それらを引き出す方法を考え出した。ここでは筆者の教え方に基づいた学習計画を説明する。この方法は，コルブ教授のエクスペリエンシャル・ラーニング・サイクルとコオペラティブ・ラーニングと筆者自信の考え方を組み合わせたものである。さらに，オリジナルの教材と出版されているテキストの両方を使った学習計画における，学習者中心のプロジェクトの各段階における細かい説明をする。

Introduction

Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember, involve me and I learn is an ancient proverb I heard years ago that guides my teaching practices. I believe that students need to be fully engaged cognitively and affectively to enjoy and succeed in learning a foreign language. Many EFL secondary school teachers ask questions such as: "How can I motivate my students, especially those who are having difficulties at school?"; "I have trouble bringing the textbook to life. Do you have any suggestions?"; and "What is a good system to link lessons in a progressive way when we only meet once a week?". Some answers to these inquiries can be found in the implementation of the principles of Experiential Learning and Cooperative Learning. Several ways in which I have structured units based on these theories will be shared with you in this article and some hints will be offered for structuring and evaluating student projects. These ideas are the results from my experience teaching high school Oral Communication B classes.

Oral Communication B (OC-B) is one of the three English communication courses created by the Ministry of Education (Oral Communication A, B and C) for which the specified objective is "to cultivate an ability to understand spoken English and to develop an eager willingness to attempt communication in English" (*Course of Study for Senior High Schools*, 1990). The curriculum of my high school allots one hour per week for the first two years for OC-B studies. Given an average of 30 teaching hours per year, I try to concentrate on projects that motivate and engage students as well as use our time efficiently.

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Cooperative learning (CL)

The Japanese education system sets students up against each other so competitively that students often do not even share class notes with each other. This environment is not at all conducive for creating a friendly, open atmosphere where feelings and ideas can be shared through a foreign language. By organizing students in groups according to the CL model and giving each student responsibility for the success of his/her group, it is possible to achieve full student participation and encourage a situation where they are helping each other to achieve a clearly defined goal. When first trying CL, I followed the principle of grouping higher ability students with students of lower skills. However, I found the groups to be more cohesive and collaborative when students were free to choose their own groups. In the four years I have allowed students this freedom, there have been only two incidents when an individual was left out and had to be placed in a group.

In incorporating the philosophy of CL, I use both short core activities and the group structure for projects. Two of the most successful activities have been Jigsaw and Numbered Heads (see Kagan, 1994, and Slavin, 1995) which aid in creating a collaborative environment. In this article, I will focus on how I combined the group structure of CL with the principles of Experiential Learning (EL) to create successful projects.

Experiential learning

In the 1980's Kolb created a model (Kolb, 1984) for teaching which divides learning into stages that follow a cycle in the following way:

Concrete Experience
Active Experimentation
Reflective Observation
Abstract Conceptualization

This cycle allows the teacher to help guide students from (a) observing and thinking about the new language points or skills to (b) practicing in a controlled setting, and finally (c) trying out the language in a freer context. The philosophy behind this approach to teaching is that the students are given the opportunity to engage in the learning process and gradually build skills for using the target language independently. By visualizing the learning process as a continual cycle, the teacher observes the students' progress and is free to alter the lesson plan and go back and forth along the cycle when students are having difficulties or are learning faster than anticipated.

The following is a description of each part of the cycle along with basic teaching ideas:

1. *Concrete experience*: The teacher creates a fairly natural situation for using the target language or skills and provides the students with a common experience of observing its usage. At the very beginning of the unit, without overtly introducing its goals, the teacher uses the goals in a meaningful way and has the students observe and later reflect on the experience. For example, if the target language is "borrow/lend," the teacher can come into the classroom and pretend to need certain common items. He/she can proceed by going to various students and requesting to borrow objects. In the second step, students will recall how the teacher asked for the items.
2. *Ideas:* Story, conversation (taped or acted out by two teachers if team teaching), song or chant, questions to the students based on the theme, a video clip.
3. *Reflective observation*: Teacher asks questions which direct the students to think about the experience and the target points. This is commonly done by students brainstorming as a whole class to recall the main points of an activity. The teacher then writes them on the board or OHT and students copy them into their notebook. Thus, they have a chance to mentally absorb the

information and, in some cases, create patterns if it is a grammar point.

4. *Ideas:* Brainstorming or recalling with the whole class, individuals or pairs. It is preferable to use the whole class so no one student is put on the spot and to help foster a cooperative atmosphere. For a quiet class, students can brainstorm in pairs and offer their ideas when they return to the whole class.
5. *Abstract conceptualization*: Students practice the target points in a controlled setting. This is the area where most language teachers and text book activities focus.
6. *Ideas:* Pair work, drills, information gap, questionnaires, listening practice, worksheets, Cooperative Learning core activities.
7. *Active experimentation*: Students try using their new language skills on their own as well as bringing in prior knowledge. This is where students' creativity can shine. The majority of the time for my classes is spent in this area and often involves groups creating and presenting projects.
8. *Ideas:* Exchange journals, plays, interviews, role plays, skits, speeches.

This cycle can be kept in mind when planning any unit, whether a teacher is using a textbook or his/her own materials. Often, the activities in textbooks focus on language input and structured practice. In such textbook activities where students are supposed to try to use the recently practiced language on their own, there is usually just a small space with instructions like "What about you?" or "Ask three classmates about their experience." When asking a class of 40 adolescents to do this kind of practice, half the students usually do unrelated activities they consider more amusing such as exchanging Print Club pictures. I find myself walking around making sure the students are on task. I have come to the conclusion that the more clearly defined the structure and goals for each step of the project/unit, the more focused, cooperative and successful the students are in the process and completion of it. When students are provided with concrete goals for the lesson and must complete a certain step, I have found that student motivation and creativity is high.

I would like to share with you an image I have thought of to foster student creativity. Imagine a squash court with the ball flying and bouncing off the walls. The ball is the students' energy and creativity. The room itself is the teacher's guidance, language and skills input, and support which helps promote a trusting environment. Let's examine how a group of my students fared in one of their "matches".

Creating a play: The Bremen town musicians

In as few as four classes, a group of high school students experienced two versions of a story, altered it to create their own version and performed their own plays. This procedure will be outlined below in terms of the Experiential Learning Cycle:

1. *Concrete experience*: Tell the students a ***kamishibai*** (picture card) version of the story, giving it a different ending than the one in the written version they will later receive. Only three A3 sized cards are used to keep it simple. As I am not much of an artist, I was fortunate to use cards drawn by students. Photocopied pictures from a storybook would work as well. Make the story interesting by changing your voice, giving the animals names and adding animal sounds. My students especially liked the "Hee haw!" of the donkey.
2. *Reflective observation*: I elicit the main points of the story from the students and draw pictures of the animals, robbers and places as they tell each part. I draw dotted lines to map out the animals' journey to Bremen. To reinforce their input, I rephrase what the students say.
3. *Abstract conceptualization*: Students are given copies of a poem/song version

of the story and played the audiotape for them. I used Scholastic's *28 Folk and Fairy Tale Poems and Songs*, (Goldish, 1995) but you could also make your own. We listened, chanted and sang. Students negotiated meaning in pairs and I helped clarify difficult phrases. This allowed learners to experience another version of the story and at the same time reinforced the basic vocabulary and structures. The rhythm also helps students with listening and speaking skills.

4. *Active experimentation*: Students make groups of five and receive another version of the story that I made in the form of a script. The story has blanks for them to create their own lines, and they are espe-cially encouraged to create an original ending. The students are free to change any of the established lines they wish. Some groups even change the characters. This stage overlaps with the previous practice stage in that the students are also given a list of phrases that could be used in the various scenes in the play. This additional input allows students to develop a broader range of vocabulary and sentence structure.

The students use simple props and enjoy performing for each other. Written feedback from the students conveyed that they were challenged by the project, but felt much success in using English and expressing themselves in a dramatic way. The most important message was that unanimously, they commented on having had fun working together. Several former students have told me that this project was their favorite in OC-B and asked me if it was still being used in my classes. In my opinion, that is the best possible feedback.

Building projects from textbook material

Most teachers, including myself, must use commercially published texts in their classes. Fortunately, most communicative textbook authors choose to organize their units thematically, thus giving the teacher a solid springboard from which they can create the structure of a project for their students. In glancing through a few textbooks from both Japanese and foreign publishers, I found themes such as airport announcements, school activities and taking a trip through England, all viable for expanding into projects. Of course, it takes a little time and ingenuity on the part of the teacher, but seeing the students enthusiastically engaged is worth every effort.

My first year high school students studied a chapter from Oxford University Press' *Passport Plus* (Buckingham, 1997) entitled "Would you like to see my pictures?" Since the goal of my unit was to have students talk about trips they had taken, this section was begun just prior to summer vacation. For homework, students were required to draw or paste a picture from one experience they had during vacation and write a passage underneath. When returning to school, students used their homework to mingle and tell three classmates about their experience. I call this activity Fluency Steps. Three steps on the board are drawn on the board and each step labeled "1", "2", and "3"with a smiley face at the end. Next to each step, directions are written as follows:

Step 1. Read to your partner.
Step 2. Read and look up. Look at your partner's eyes!
Step 3. Cover the writing. Show your partner your picture and tell him/her about your experience. Be natural! Students are encouraged to practice each of the steps as many times as they find necessary.

Next, the text book activities are practiced and further help students develop listening, reading, writing and speaking skills for this topic. This gives students more knowledge to use in the final free practice which emphasizes the fifth skill, creativity.

The next stage in this unit incorporates rhythm. We practiced a chant that has one verse of questions and two verses about my own summer vacation. The students were then required to replace the last two verses with information about a trip they had taken. Some chanted about cycling or camping trips, others said they did nothing but stay at home and sleep all afternoon. What-ever the topic, students worked hard to create their own chant. They had to focus on stress, intonation and stress reduction, essential for building good speaking and listening skills. Although the writing part was done for homework, they were encouraged to work in small groups in class to help each other with editing and rhythm practice. During this time I could work with students who requested assistance.

Lastly, students performed a role play based on a model conversation in their text. They could choose to talk about their homework or chant the topic. The rules to observe were as follows: Practice the role play orally, do not write it out. Just write new vocabulary or phrases you want to try out. Ask at least three questions about your partner's experience and react to what they say (i.e., "Oh, that sounds wonderful!" or "That's too bad.") before asking the next question. After performing their role plays, students said their chants. In groups of four, they evaluated each other using a system that will be explained in the last section.

While working with this unit, I found a smooth transition existed between activities as each had a clear and specific goal in mind and flowed into the next. In working with the textbook activities, the students were focused and engaged, primarily, I assume, because they knew there was a purpose for practicing and that they would be responsible for actively using the language introduced in the activities.

Points to keep in mind

1. Whatever work you have the students do, make certain it is recycled later. Ensure that the students understand the purpose of their work. Show respect for their efforts.
2. Give clear directions and set strict time limits. Students will inevitably complain about not having enough time, but knowing the limits, they will not waste time and will work productively in class.
3. Give points for steps in the project (i.e., homework and class work), not just the final presentation. This helps to keep the students on target and gives students credit for the preparation, not just the end product.

Peer evaluation

Many teachers shy away from such projects because it requires breaking away from their usual ways of teaching and evaluating. Quite honestly, many Japanese assistant teachers may feel nervous about my system of peer evaluation. Such teachers may be reassured that students are very honest and are actually stricter in their grading than the instructor. The presentation process is closely monitored and students are told that grades will be challenged if not on target.

When I first started teaching at junior high/high school, I would have groups or pairs perform in front of the whole class. Not only is this time consuming, but it also becomes tedious and boring. This evaluation process has been gradually altered to include students assessing their peers. Besides relieving the previous problems, it also gave students responsibility and a chance to think about what is important in good communication and presentations.

When groups perform, the students are divided into eight groups. They put their desks together to form a single table. With four groups in the front of the room and four in the back, the structure is perfect for pairing groups and for leaving space in the middle for the presentations. This structure is used for performing the Bremen Town Musicians. The four groups in front get ready in the middle and simultaneously perform their plays for their respective

partner group, and vice versa. I stand in the front, cue for time and make mental and written notes about the plays. Within a 50-minute class, students had a chance to do a final practice, perform, evaluate each other and prepare feedback on the unit.

For presentations involving pairs or individuals, the students organize themselves into groups of four. Those who perform stand while the others sit quietly, observe and grade. Students are not allowed to talk while giving points and must sign the paper and turn it in before the other half do their presentations. The ones who receive perfect or near perfect scores are often selected to perform for the class at the end of the lesson. This provides students with examples of good presentations, recognizes the students who worked hard, and gives me a final chance to check their grading.

Conclusion

Students thrive in a supportive atmosphere where they can exercise their creativity and knowledge. More and more, students are going abroad or meeting students from other countries here in Japan. This increased contact with foreigners results in higher motivation among learners to use English more actively. Given the opportunity, most students who have become discouraged by traditional lecture style classes will make a greater effort to participate when becoming more involved in creating projects of their own, something they can be proud of.

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Questioning Creativity: The CUE Forum on Higher Education

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(Presenters: Jack Kimball, moderator; David McMurray; Brian McVeigh; Cheiron McMahill)

This article debates definitions and applications of the term "creativity" with respect to college and university language teaching. The term proves volatile not only because it embraces a wide range of potential classroom interventions, but also because it is contentiously linked with larger social questions, including gender identity and gender equity. The first author gives an overview of the debate, framing the controversy within feminist critique of Japanese schooling. The second author separates creativity from its disputable social implications and uses the common-sense meaning of the term to suggest that language teachers pay more attention to students' individual goals. The third author problematizes the term, suggesting that creativity belongs to a category of buzzwords that are used to deflect attention from systematic reform of higher education.

本稿は、creativity という言葉の定義の検討を、特に大学における語学教育との関係において行っている。この言葉には様々な価値観に基づく複数の用法があり、それがこの言葉を複雑なものにしている。教育現場のみならず、より大きな社会問題である男女の性の独自性、平等性の思想とのかかわりに基づく様々な用法が含まれている。本稿における第一の論者は、この言葉に関する最近の議論を日本の教育についてのフェミニストの立場での論評という視点から行っている。第二の論者は、creativity という言葉を社会問題から切り離し、通常の意味において検討している。Creativity は教育の基礎と言いうるもので、語学教師は生徒の個人的なゴールにもっと注目するべきである、と述べている。第三の論者は、この言葉が意味のない表面的な使われ方をする流行語のように用いられている点を指摘し、それが高等教育の実質的な改革を避けるための方便であると考えている。

Introduction

The College and University Educators (CUE) Forum conducted an extended dialogue-cum-debate on whether the term "creativity" can be usefully employed in teaching and learning without submitting its meanings and applications to close examination and taking into account, for example, substantial historical and cultural contexts that influence classroom practice. In "Forum Overview" Kimball outlines the background to the debate, noting that the arguments advanced can be measured in terms of adherence and resistance to feminist critique of Japanese higher education. In emphasizing students' needs rather than social criticism, McMurray in "Embracing Creativity" suggests that guidelines for reform from the Ministry of Education can be productively translated into innovations in praxis. McVeigh argues in "Challenging Creativity" that educators' primary responsibility is to confront and correct obfuscations brought about by the overuse of vacuous terms, and to help reshape both the visible and hidden curriculum to better affect learner development and the teaching profession.

Forum Overview *by Jack Kimball*
Whatever our sympathies regarding criticism from non-Japanese of current educational practices in Japan, we do well to remember that questioning abstract constructs like creativity and gender identity are not recent trends nor exclusively "foreign" matters either for Japanese society as a whole or, more pertinent, for Japanese educators. The founding of women's colleges—institutions whose current mission McVeigh (1997) in particular regards as one that fosters and reinforces restrictive, "ladylike" roles—was predicated on 19th-century feminist ideals, self-sufficiency and economic emancipation (Furuki, Ueda & Althaus, 1984; Takahashi, 1989). Japan-based observers Hara (1995), Fujimura-Fanselow (1995, 1996) and Kanamaru (1998), moreover, evaluate the present-day teaching of college women by surveying historical and cultural contexts unique to Japan. Additionally, McMahill and Reekie (1996) and McMahill (1997, 1998) document how, at least in urban Japan, homegrown feminist impulses toward equity and broader visions for women are pervasive, and how these impulses can be disposed toward acts of creativity and learner empowerment inside and outside the classroom.

The confluence of creativity and gender identity characterizes a central theme of the CUE Forum. The Forum operated, in summary, within a mainstream continuum of critical, feminist dialogue and debate about what strategies best equip teachers and learners for the challenges of a more competitive social environment. In this regard, the dialogue ranged between instructional dilemmas (such as whether and how to address oppressive, often-subliminal affects resulting from gender-marked language in conventional textbooks, and all-male vs. all-female student groupings in language classes) to more encompassing professional concerns from gender-segregated course offerings, to marginalization of female, foreign and, especially, foreign female instructors.

While the creativity/gender-identity nexus proved to be a running theme in the Forum, this linkage was not unanimously endorsed. Resistance to any connection involved two bases of argument. First, there was (and is) the view that notwithstanding feminist critique from native Japanese, links between gender identity and creativity largely derive from Western pop psychology; that such linkage is the byproduct of "ethnocentric assumptions about the source and meaning of creativity" (McMurray, 1998, p. 21; citing White, 1987). A second and more radical line of argument engages competing conceptions of the term "creativity." As will be argued, recent calls on the part of the Ministry of Education for "creativity" in higher education can be viewed as (a) separate from matters of gender, yet a welcome development that can lead to pedagogical and even entrepreneurial innovations; or (b) a bureaucratic, defensive re-run of abstract rhetoric to obscure more critical inquiry into gender inequities and educational reforms.

The heart of the Forum dialogue, then, debates what is meant by "creativity." When deployed by administrators, should such a term necessarily evoke suspicion and in fact skepticism on the part of language teachers? McMurray and McVeigh provide ample if contradictory responses to this question. While the controversy surrounding creativity remains open-ended, both sides here seem to converge with regard to the point of the debate, that is, the increasing and urgent need many college language teachers sense to introduce alternative goals and methods for the purpose of improving the quality of educational outcomes for both men and women.

Embracing Creativity *by David McMurray*
The search for creativity in higher education in Japan and the rest of Asia is in full gear. Employers and educators agree on the need to encourage creativity among undergraduates before they enter the

workforce or move higher in academia. But what is creativity? How can it be taught in the English classroom?

Criticism of Japanese education and its lack of creativity focuses on the suppression of individualism. For instance, a common complaint is that there is little provision for tracking the bright. Another criticism is that only recently have Japanese observers looked to American university models to learn how to provide rich opportunities for creative talent to bloom. Popular criticism of the university system continues to underscore how students spend four years at leisure.

In 1947, two years after World War II, Japan's educational system was reformed from the outside, by American advisors, as a necessary first step toward promoting democracy. The curriculum established unified institutions of higher education in the form of four-year colleges and universities. The postwar era focus was on rebuilding and catching up. The desired aim was for generalist student graduates. Japan's corporations preferred to hire groups of malleable young recruits each spring who could be molded into each company's ideal employee. Women usually lost out. While China and Russia depended on training women to be effective in the workplace in order to help rebuild after the war, Japan chose to direct its young women toward staying at home as the ideal.

The current economic crisis and demands for reform in education could be the turning point for college women. Challenging prevailing notions of creativity and gender roles continues to depend on political and business support for education. In 1999, there are opportunities for college educators to promote creativity with the reform measures announced by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry has drafted a new "vision" for universities in the 21st century and suggests several reform measures. The focus of their report is to promote distinctive universities in the current competitive environment. According to the Ministry's report, education and research at Japanese universities must lead to the cultivation of students who have the ability to pursue their own goals, and who are motivated to study independently.

The new focus on students' individual goals means teachers must assess and cater to the preferred learning styles and strategies of their students. Comparisons of TOEFL scores and other indicators of how well students in Japan measure up to EFL students internationally will take on new meaning. This new focus also affords opportunities to challenge traditional gender roles and to encourage creativity. Yet teachers must look beyond whether students are male or female before judging how best to guide them to learn and to ready themselves for graduation.

Can foreign language educators follow the Ministry's guidelines and help to change the education system? The short answer is that each educator on his or her own cannot make the education system more creative, but we can make students more creative. Dr. Robert Tobin, for example, an American professor of organizational behavior and development offers a "Creativity and Change" course at Keio University. He feels creativity cannot be taught, but people can be encouraged to be more creative. Motivation is a focus of many of the course activities. Students are encouraged to take risks and even to fail in order not to be afraid to go out and try again. They take photos of creativity in action, write poetry, do ten new things a day.

Here is another example. International University of Japan encourages their MBA students to gain on-site experience in companies. Much of the work is done in English. Teams of IUJ students study the operations of small industries by observing and interviewing employees in finance, manufacturing and sales. They then apply the concepts learned from textbooks and case studies to their findings. Students discuss the strong and weak points of the companies and how improvements can be made. The course integrates knowledge from different disciplines. University

educators are not alone in their efforts, of course. Fumie Otsuka teaches a secondary-level class called "Creativity and Communication" in Ibaraki Prefecture. She introduced the new course, which has been adopted by other teachers in Ibaraki, because she found there was no room for creativity in previous courses. Students had little chance to work on their own ideas; instead they were instructed to repeat new words and sentence patterns until they had memorized them. Her students lacked analytical and reasoning skills because they only knew how to absorb knowledge through memorization. She now emphasizes group learning and team presentations.

From these few examples, I would suggest there is opportunity for both foreign and native Japanese language teachers with experience in the education system in Japan— and who also have the skills and understanding of how to encourage creativity—to take the lead in facilitating the adoption of the teaching methods and management styles currently sought by the Ministry of Education, business and universities.

Challenging "Creativity" *by Brian McVeigh*

The very structures of Japanese schooling and socialization can be described as mechanisms of a dogmatic national identity ("Japaneseness") which configures educational practices (e.g., English education). This national identity or nationalism is culturally determined: "Japanese must act a certain way because they are Japanese." (The descriptors are various but quite familiar: "shy," "dominated by the group," "consensus-seeking," "living in a vertical society," etc.) Cultural determinism sometimes goes further, legitimating biological determinism, or what may be called racialism: "Japanese must act a certain way because they were born Japanese." More specific to questions of creativity and gender identity, Japanese women must act a certain way because they were born Japanese. In light of such rationalizations, I conclude that until Japanese and non-Japanese recognize diversity within Japan, diversity outside Japan will continue to be viewed in stereotypes, thereby supporting the racialist Japanese / non-Japanese distinction, because, after all, domestic and overseas stereotyping reinforce each other.

Furthermore, problems in Japanese education cannot be rectified until we drop buzzwords that becloud understanding of defects. One of the most insidious buzzwords is "creativity." In contrast to officialese "visions," genuine creativity vis a vis education can arise only when we strive to avoid superficial analyses, take government reports and media-hype with large doses of skepticism, and allow diversity into the educational experience. With these points in mind, I shall examine creativity from three angles.

(1) *Gender segregation*

Even the most cursory look at statistics on women in Japanese education demonstrates high degrees of gender segregation. Students who attend junior colleges are 90.7% female, while full-time female faculty at such schools is 40.5%. Women at junior colleges account for 28.3% of full professors and 11% of presidents. In contrast, at universities, only 33.3% of students are female, while women constitute only 11.2% of full-time faculty, 6.3% of full professors and 5.3% of presidents (*Gakko kihon chosa hokokusho—koto kyoiku kikan,* 1997; *Monbusho tokei yoran,* 1997). Junior college students who study in segregated institutional settings, surrounded and socialized by a "traditional" social milieu, have little chance to question seriously socially-assigned roles, such as requirements that female students be "ladylike." I do not mean to suggest that there is something inherently wrong with natural expressions of femininity. Rather, my contention is that being "ladylike" is not innate. It is a social and political construction, reproduced by way of

schooling practices and encouraged by economic and political structures (McVeigh 1997). Ideally, femininity (or masculinity, for that matter) should be a question of personal preference and individual style, not political prescription and economic demand.

(2) *Tyranny of buzzwords*

Any analysis of educational reform in Japan must adopt a historical perspective to discern that the terms "individuality," "liberalization," "diversification," "internationalization," "cross-cultural understanding" and, especially, "creativity" are not new. These terms are merely recycled; to rely on the rhetoric generated by these words is to support the status quo. Using more genuine, down-to-earth, concrete terms and ways of expression would go a long way in setting the groundwork for a real discussion of problems in Japanese education. A related issue concerns the confusion between "individualism" (kojinshugi) with "individuality" (kosei). Japan has plenty of the latter, but "individualism" is a political philosophy rooted in the West and is not necessary for creativity. Thus, to discuss the need for more "individualism" in Japanese schooling is a red herring.

Many of the problems we witness in Japanese education are caused by corporate culture. It may be true in a sense that in "America, academia and business are closely linked" (McMurray, 1998, p. 22), but in other ways, they are clearly not linked since many American universities possess policy mechanisms designed to guard their institutional autonomy from corporate monopolization. In Japan, on the other hand, universities have been essentially converted into selecting devices and employment agencies for companies. This has devastated Japan's higher education. The business community repeatedly requests that the educational system produce more disciplined (and obedient) workers instilled with the proper attitude toward labor. The state has more than happily answered these requests. The purpose of education in Japan has been so thoroughly monopolized by business interests that colleges and universities have become not education centers as we know them in North America or Europe, but rather prep schools for future employment. Business leaders and state officials are probably happiest when they hear teachers droning on about the need for more "creativity," since this has very little to do with challenging actual problems at hand. Though it may be said that change in higher education requires political and business support, improvement in higher education can only occur when the domineering pressures of the state and corporate world are removed from higher education.

(3) *Professional marginalization*

In spite of progress made at a few universities and colleges, this generalization holds true: non-Japanese instructors are either denigrated, not regarded as full-time professionals (leading to some very sticky legal problems), or they are overidealized as exotic "cultural ambassadors" who typify what is "foreign," tokens of the Other, in possession of the magical power of English. The roles of non-Japanese instructors, of course, should be viewed more pragmatically; opportunities beyond language teaching should be opened to non-Japanese instructors, and they should be regarded as instructors, not "foreign" instructors. Treating non-Japanese as equals means a genuine acceptance of diversity and encourages a more "creative" worldview. But currently, despite much ballyhooing of "internationalization," the number of non-Japanese instructors remains small: Non-Japanese account for 2.97% of full-time faculty at universities and 3.49% at junior colleges, and for 5.82% of part-time faculty at universities and 5.24% at junior colleges (*Gakko kihon chosa hokokusho—koto kyoiku kikan,* 1997; *Monbusho tokei yoran,* 1997).

I suggest that we hold the Japanese educational system and its values up to international standards (i.e., the same standards that a cross-section of people

would use to assess the educational practices of their own societies). For example, some question whether Japanese women need to be "liberated" since the feminist movement is essentially Western. Such a view, however, misses two points: First, the women's rights movement has a long history in Japan, and second, any discussion of women's rights is ultimately (regardless of local inflections and cultural particularities) a matter of universal concern (as are questions of race and nationality). The rigid bifurcation of roles based on gender, in sum, limits creativity of both males and females and undoubtedly hinders self-development.

It is interesting (though disappointing) that some observers are in the habit of making exceptions for Japanese, and yet they speak in a contradictory manner about the need to "internationalize" Japan. An example of this would be those who label outside critique as "cultural imperialism": "Are non-Japanese imposing their own culturally-biased views on the Japanese?" Imagine, in contrast, Europeans or North Americans explaining to a Japanese that in their own societies sexual inequality or discrimination against Asians is justified on the grounds of "cultural differences." Carried to extremes, such thinking results in misinterpreting the nature of problems in Japanese education. Consider Susser's review of the ESL/EFL literature, which because of its reputed reductive tendency to view the East as inferior, that is, because of its Orientalism, "presents a distorted account of Japanese learners and classrooms" (1998, p. 49). There is no question that Orientalism has led to misunderstandings about Japanese society; nonetheless, blanket accusations of Orientalism (cf. Susser's extensive bibliography) are not only of questionable value, but draw our attention away from the realities that plague language learning in Japan. Moreover, in my estimation, ESL/EFL suffers as much from Occidentalism (refer, above, to how foreign instructors are treated at some universities) as it does from Orientalism.

To conclude, I suggest that in addition to fulfilling our roles in the classroom, we step out of the classroom and learn more about the larger, deeply structural forces that shape educational practices in Japan. You cannot fix a problem unless you know its nature. Many individuals who are passionately committed to understanding and improving what goes on in the classroom only rely on literature about English language instruction and official reports that serve up buzzwords. It is, though, not enough to know what goes on in the classroom and to repeat slogans. We need to expand our reading lists and acquaint ourselves with the historical, political and economic forces that shape both the visible and hidden curriculum of the Japanese classroom at all levels. This way, we can avoid the tyranny of buzzwords, such as "creativity," and acknowledge that many of the issues under consideration are political, not pedagogical. Precisely because certain patterns of thought are difficult to discern, we should confront, dissect, and rectify them.

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Teacher Beliefs and Teacher Development

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The recent TESOL Quarterly (Autumn, 1988) on ESOL teacher education advocates a reconceptualization of the knowledge-base for English language teacher education. The editors propose that research on teacher education should more directly account for the teacher (experiences, knowledge, and beliefs); however, the school context and practices remain underestimated. Using multiple data sources including interviews, observations, and surveys, we try to clarify the difficulties inherent in continual professional development while juxtaposing the realities the Japanese English language teachers in this study confront in their working environments. We conclude that teacher development entails institutional development that ensures continuous learning opportunities in the learning context.

昨年，秋に出された教師教育に関する TESOL Quarterly の特集号の冒頭で，Freeman と Johnson は従来の知識伝授型の教師教育の再考を促している。そして，英語教師教育の研究においては，教師の経験，知識，外国語教育観 (belief) のみならず，教師の授業実践，学校の教育環境を考慮すべきであると主張している。しかしながら，英語教師が学校の中で，どのような実践を試み，成長していくのかは，ほとんど知られていない。本稿では，複合的調査方法（インタビュー，授業観察，質問調査）を用いた研究結果に基づき，日本の英語教師が教育現場で直面している問題を明らか

にし，教師自身の職業的成長における困難を指摘する。結論として，教師の成長には授業改革と共に，教師の継続的な学習機会を保証するような学校・教育環境の改革が必要であることを論じる。

Theoretical background

Teacher development aims at teacher learning in school. In essence, teacher development requires teachers to develop their beliefs and practices (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1994; 1996). While general educational research has called for the need of comprehensive investigation with consideration of contextual influences (Lee & Yarger, 1996), the significance of the contexts was recognized in ESOL teacher education only recently (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). In particular, how school contexts influence what teachers think and do, and how they learn to teach is an unstudied problem except the research on technical cultures by Kleinsasser (1993) and Freeman (1996).

Kleinsasser (1993) applied Rosenholtz's (1989) work with high school foreign language teachers. Data was collected from 37 teachers in 11 schools through interviews, observations, and surveys. The results indicated two distinctive technical cultures. One was routine/uncertain cultures, where teachers were uncertain about their instructional practice, but were engaged in day-to-day routine. They had few conversations about instruction, and relied on traditional approaches. The other was nonroutine/certain cultures, where teachers were confident about their instruction, and their daily practices were not predictable. Teachers collaborated across the departments, and incorporated more communicative activities. In short, Kleinsasser (1993) revealed the strong relationship between school contexts and teachers' practices.

The study

This study sought to reveal the relationships among the context, beliefs, and practices, in general, and how EFL teachers learn to teach in the school context, in particular. Although Monbusho introduced a new syllabus with emphasis on communication-oriented English in 1994, little is known about what teachers understand by English language teaching and how they actually teach. A few studies such as Pacek (1996) and Murphey and Sato (in progress) reported that teachers were confused with how to teach according to the new syllabus.

Our one-year study, conducted in a private high school, employed multiple data sources (see Sato & Kleinsasser, forthcoming) including surveys, interviews, observations, and documents in order to reveal the relationships among the context, beliefs, and practices of 15 EFL teachers (including two native English speaking teachers). The school culture surveys, consisting of 104 items with a Likert-type scale, were adapted from Kleinsasser (1993). Data collection started in September, 1997, including interviews, classroom observations, and documents. Data collection was repeated in each term. In the main, qualitative, inductive approaches were used to analyze the data. The following were results from the first data collection. Pseudonyms are used to keep identities anonymous.

Results

Institutional beliefs

Overall, the data analysis indicated adherence to the institutionalized belief about English language teaching that it was important to teach according to the established grammar-translation method for the common tests and classroom management. Moreover, the results showed that institutional beliefs included not only the belief about the subject matter, but also other beliefs about the workplace, students, teachers themselves, and learning opportunities.

First, teachers revealed an institutional belief about English language teaching when they worked together. They felt strongly

that the university entrance examinations were one strong source of this pressure. For example, Hatano commented.

> *Hatano:* It is necessary and is an ideal to be able to speak and listen. But, we cannot ignore university entrance examinations. That's another problem. If entrance exams were removed, it would be time that we started to think about alternatives.

Moreover, most teachers, like Imai below, said they relied on the textbook too much and for this reason could not produce enjoyable classes.

> *Imai:* I don't think I have any successful classes. I didn't try that. Well, we used the textbook of basic grammar in the first term. For each lesson it has five key sentences and I did a quiz to memorize them at the beginning of the class. After that, I briefly explained grammatical points, and had students try exercises. If necessary, I added other exercises or had them make simple sentences. I had this kind of pattern. I don't think it is good, but other teachers followed it, too, because we talked about how to go about our lessons.

In addition, teachers assessed students based on mechanically scored tests which helped them in terms of classroom management but had doubtful learning effect.

> *Saito:* Students worked hard for quizzes, because we assessed the results. Also, I checked their preparation every time by walking around the classroom... Anyway, we just made handouts in order to have them know what to do. In terms of behavioral management and classroom order, the results were good. But in terms of actual learning, I am not sure of the results.

In sum, although none of them favored exam-oriented English, as a group in their institution, they could not ignore it. Moreover, teaching the same way for the common tests seemed to be a priority when they worked together.

Second, there seemed to be school norms and values for managing students that took precedence over teaching. For example, Mike, with three years' teaching experience in this school, noticed that those who attended to extra curricular activities and a lot of meetings were considered good teachers.

Third, many teachers related that changing students' negative attitude toward English and motivating them was the most difficult problem.

> *Sudo:* First of all, many students are allergic to English. I think this is due to the English teaching in junior high schools. It is not easy for students to get rid of this allergy. Also many students finish three years at this high school without changing their attitudes toward English. We often feel the dilemma between having fun in classes and teaching the basics.

Fourth, several teachers confessed that they were uncertain about teaching approaches, and a couple of teachers mentioned lack of proficiency. For instance, Imai started to teach oral communication classes this year.

> *Imai:* I am 52 years old and learned English with traditional approaches. Age might not be

> related, but I have difficulty teaching oral communication classes in some ways. We, Japanese, are in charge of listening and grammar. So I managed the classes by using tapes, because I cannot speak English fluently. Well, I think I have to learn more about teaching approaches, but it is hard for me.

Finally, teacher learning seemed to be limited mainly to occasional peer-observations, with the majority of teachers avoiding workshops due to a perceived lack of the possibility to implement new ideas.

> *Tanaka:* It is a shame, but I have not attended any workshops since last June... I have encountered many interesting ideas so far, but in fact, I found most of them not helpful. If I can change the pattern of the class of my own will, I can try out many things. However, I have to follow the textbook as other teachers do.

Individual Beliefs

Contrarily, 13 out of 15 teachers still expressed desires toward implementing communication-oriented language teaching. They were; (a) using the target language; (b) focus on listening; (c) using activities; (d) integrating four skills; and, (e) using authentic materials. However, many teachers confessed that they were uncertain how to teach, showing that these were mostly just "espoused" beliefs. For example, Kito commented:

> *Kito:* I have a feeling that I want to help students improve their English proficiency by using activities such as games, dictation, and self-expression...We used to have a teacher who studied abroad for a couple of years and used games in classrooms. She really motivated students. I think I have to study more about teaching approaches to motivate students.

It was true that teachers had to comply with the existing practices and the institutional beliefs. However, in small courses such as music, nursing, and commerce, several teachers related that they had tried out new ideas, because there were no common tests and they had freedom to choose materials. For example, Kobayashi used pairwork in an elective conversation class, and enjoyed teaching last year, while he was ashamed of having no successful classes this year.

> *Kobayashi:* I can't think of any classes where I felt successful. Well, last year when I was in charge of English conversation classes with another teacher, I succeeded in some activities. We divided the class into two groups. I used a toy of the telephone to introduce a telephone conversation, and they really liked it. I myself had fun. I used the textbook but incorporated several activities such as pair-work. Students could develop a model dialogue in pairs by creating some sentences. Well, it was interesting. As for reading and grammar lessons, I have no particular ones I think I did well. What a shame, I suppose.

Nonetheless, there is some evidence that when structures allow and encourage collaboration interesting development can happen. Sudo taught oral communica-tion classes for commercial students for the first time this year. Since there were only two commercial classes in Year Three, which Sudo and Mike were in charge of, he seemed

to have freedom to try out many things. Though he expressed his anxiety about how to teach the new subject, he collaborated with Mike and came up with ideas for a future activity that excited him.

> *Sudo:* Well, I am in charge of the third-year students, in particular, oral communi-cation in commercial classes. But I am at a loss how to teach this new subject. I am teaching through trial and error. One thing worth mentioning is the assignment for which students record their voices either by themselves or groups. I tried this assignment with Mike. For example, we gave them a title such as "My family," and they made up a script ... If possible, I am planning to let them try drama in groups of five to six. We can videotape them. It's going to be a memorable work.

Classroom observations

Surprisingly, almost all the EFL teachers in general English classes conformed to the pattern of traditional practices. Classes were teacher-fronted, and instructions were delivered in Japanese. There seemed no room for communication-oriented English to be incorporated into general English classes, although oral communication classes started in this school five years ago. Most teachers began with word pronunciation, model reading, chorus reading, or listening to a tape, and spent most of the time having students translate each sentence into Japanese and ex-plaining grammatical points. Even in oral communication classes, JETs were in charge of listening and grammar, and there were no interactions among students in English. The two JETs also had difficulty having students interact and communicate in English. In contrast, only a couple of teachers developed materials and tried out their new ideas in special classes in small courses. Overall, the survey data analysis corresponded to the interview data.

Conclusion

Although teachers express their individual beliefs or knowledge about communication-oriented English, they rely heavily on routine practices in their classrooms. How could this discre-pancy be explained? Individual beliefs seem secondary to school norms and institutional beliefs when determining specific actions in the classroom. Most research on teacher beliefs has focused mainly on individual beliefs about the subject matter, and failed to investigate the interactions with other sets of beliefs, values, and behaviors, which are deeply rooted in institutional settings and form the school culture. Although it is easy to conclude that these teachers rely on traditional practices in a routine/uncertain culture, a few teachers did attempt to implement innovative practices in special classes. The question becomes, "How can teacher freedom, creativity, time for preparation, risk-taking, and learning opportunities be protected?" Perhaps a clue as to how this might be done comes from Lieberman and Miller (1990) who defined teacher development as "not only the renewal of teaching, but it is also the renewal of schools—in effect, culture building" (p. 107). In other words, teacher development entails both class-room and institutional development, i.e., developing a school culture where teachers collaborate, talk about instruction, share planning and preparation, try out new ideas, and promote continuous learning. For these teachers to develop their individual beliefs through trial and error experiences, which is teacher development, it is crucial that the institution of schooling in general, and each school individually, create structures that invite teachers to do so.

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Global Education and Language Teacher Training

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How does one become a "global teacher?" What training do language teachers need to effectively integrate global awareness, world citizenship, and the study of world problems into their classroom teaching? In this colloquium, a panel of teacher trainers and global educators discussed global education approaches to teacher development and innovative teacher training programs which promote international understanding through language teaching.

「グローバル教育を指導できる教師」の養成に必要なものは何か。地球的視野での自覚や地球市民権，そして世界的な問題の研究を授業に反映し，効果的にまとめるにはどの様なトレーニングが語学教師にとって必要とされているのか。このパネル・ディスカッションでは，教師の指導に携わる者とグローバル教育の専門家が，教師の育成及び言語教育を通じて国際理解を促進する教師のトレーニング・プログラムの新生面を見いだすという観点から，グローバル教育について論じている。

Introduction

For classroom practitioners to effectively teach a foreign language, good training is required. An entire field of language teacher training has arisen to provide such preparation. Among language professionals dealing with global concerns, however, there has been little discussion of the training needed to help teachers integrate global issues, world citizenship, and international understanding into their language teaching. To address this topic, this colloquium, organized by JALT's Global Issues Special Interest Group, brought together four experts to discuss global education approaches to teacher development and language teacher training.

Training global teachers is often a difficult job, due to teacher knowledge, attitudes or (lack of) support. Typical concerns faced by global education teacher trainers are cited in an American survey (Merryfield, 1991) which found that:

1. Pre- and in-service teachers have little or no knowledge of global perspectives or the information on which these depend.
2. Many teachers aren't interested in teaching global concerns because they perceive such issues to be irrelevant or threatening, or because they are locked into a "nationalistic mind set."
3. Many teachers do not perceive global perspectives as essential for quality education.
4. A lack of leadership and support for global perspectives in schools means that, even when teachers acquire the necessary knowledge and motivation to teach with a global perspective, their efforts may be stalled by existing curricula and bureaucratic procedures.

Another typical problem is the mistaken image teachers often have of the global educator's role. For many, a "global teacher" means a "super-teacher" with inexhaustible energy and a complete knowledge of global issues who is a tireless champion of all good causes and is able to leap over tall buildings in a single bound. A more realistic image is that of the "global striver" who has an open mind and caring heart, who tries to counter injustice and inequality, who recognizes gaps in his or her knowledge of global issues (but is committed to learning more), and who works to build a global perspective into classroom teaching (but often needs stamina).

The concept of the "global language teacher" and ways of developing such teachers are addressed in the papers below. These begin with an essay on the concept of "education for global citizenship," followed by case studies of global education teacher training programs for language teachers in Japan.

Freedom from fear of freedom: Global citizens in the classroom and beyond

Lynda-ann Blanchard

As world citizens and as teachers of language and culture, we are involved in the business of global education. If we consider citizenship as a central theme in global education, we can discern three sites for our teaching and learning: We are citizens in our classrooms, of our cultures, and of the world. The promotion of citizenship ideals is therefore a key role for the global teacher.

Language teachers and citizenship education: Asking the questions

Campaigner for democracy and peace activist Aung San Suu Kyi has said that citizenship is about freedom from fear. For the language teacher interested in global issues, this could translate as freedom from fear of freedom. This fear can be found among teachers who, while interested in dealing with global issues, feel bound to the language textbook, the linguistic syllabus or the conversation manual, and are afraid to approach language teaching through global content.

1. *In curriculum development* The interdisciplinary nature of the "quality of life" or "security for all" curriculum addresses cultural, social, environmental, and economic issues. The "global issues" kaleidoscope is overwhelming. Where does the language teacher begin?
2. *In classroom activity* The capacity for reflective dialogue and debate is central to language acquisition, to cross-cultural understanding, and to citizenship education. It involves taking risks with language learning and developing assessment measures which are flexible and meaningful. For some teachers, taking any risk at all is a frightening step. Yet, is this process as frightening as it sounds?
3. *In acquiring knowledge* The practice of analytical and communicative skills—essential tools for language learning and citizenship education—may be presented in a one-dimensional paradigm; "right or wrong," "good or bad." On the other hand, if we recognise that a singular focus of specific substantive knowledge may inhibit learning, we can create supportive alternatives. We can do this by taking risks with ideas, sharing them, and realising that conclusions, such as "right or wrong," are unhelpful.

Training for global teachers: Providing the cues

Citizenship education involves fostering participation (in the classroom and in public life) and promoting reciprocity (individual rights and communal responsibilities). JALT98 exemplified these ideals as colleagues provided the cues for finding freedom from fear of freedom for the global language teacher.

Denise Drake (Kitakyushu University) taught us how to tame the unwieldy global issues curriculum with careful syllabus development of a specific issue. Tapping into a personal interest in gender issues, she developed exciting course materials. One textbook activity proved ineffective for the students, she recalled, "so we talked about how difficult it was for students to role play sexual harassment in the workplace. Every student had a personal story to tell but not about the workplace." Language skills development, as well as the meaning of citizenship, were enhanced by this process.

Richard Smith (Tokyo University of Foreign Studies) took us on a wonderful journey towards learner autonomy. Aware that his "listening class" was not engaged in productive learning, he was faced with the need for change from "my tape recorder-centred teaching. That was scary." By inviting students, as citizens of the class, to take some responsibility for their learning and help plot a new direction for the course, they were given the respect and motivation they needed to actively listen and learn.

Leni Dam (Royal Danish Institute) and David Little (Trinity College) provided excellent teacher training in citizenship education with their plenary discussion about systems of knowledge and language acquisition: "school knowledge" and "action knowledge." Extensive cross-cultural research has suggested that a learner's self-esteem is affected by the process of knowledge acquisition. Formal text experiences or unauthentic activities inhibit language learning and personal growth.

Global citizens in the classroom and beyond

Educational philosophers have promoted critical questioning in educating for democratic values and citizenship. It is inclusive, not exclusive. Resources are both personal and international. Most important are two essential ingredients: a fascination with cultural difference and the value of linguistic pluralism. If we are to unmask conditions for equitable coexistence in sharing responsibility for the global environment, we must speak with each other about our similarities and differences. An understanding of citizenship ideals depends, in large part, on the abilities of our teachers to encourage a capacity for language

learning.

Training language teachers to effectively use global education materials, modes and methods is not just a good idea, an abstract concept, a distant possibility or mere wishful thinking. A number of global education teacher training programs for foreign language instructors already exist in different parts of the world and are producing some exciting results. Here, we look at three such programs in Japan as sample case studies of ways in which language teachers can be introduced to global education.

Educating global language teachers: A case study

Kip Cates

MA-level language teacher training programs generally lack a component dealing with global education. A unique graduate course entitled "Trends—New Directions in ESOL: Global Issues and Cooperative Learning," which I teach as part of the MA-in-TESOL program of Teachers College Columbia University at its Tokyo campus, aims to introduce language teachers to ideas, techniques, and materials from the fields of global education, peace education, human rights education, and environmental education. The following is a brief description of the course.

Course outline

This one-semester "New Directions in ESOL: Global Issues" MA-in-TESOL course was founded in 1991 and has been taught annually since then. Course participants are English language teachers (Japanese and non-Japanese) who work at various levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced), in various institutions (high school, college, commercial language schools), and with various learners (children, school pupils, college students, adult learners). The Global Issues MA course consists of 60 hours of instruction and is divided into two parts: a methodology workshop and a practicum.

The methodology component introduces students to the fields of global education, cooperative learning, and the teaching of global issues in language classes. In the practicum, students explore specific areas of global education and experiment with the design and teaching of global issue language lessons. As a working definition, global education is described as an approach to language teaching which aims at enabling students to effectively acquire a foreign language while empowering them with the knowledge, skills, and commitment required for the solution of world problems. Global knowledge involves learning about the nature of world problems, their causes and possible solutions. Global skills include communication skills, critical and creative thinking skills, problem solving skills, conflict resolution skills, and the ability to see problems from multiple perspectives. The commitment to work towards solving world problems comes from attitudes and values involving global awareness, curiosity, altruism and social concern.

The course content covers key aspects of global education such as definitions and history of the field, objectives and rationale, as well as global education approaches to curriculum design, classroom methodology, and evaluation. Course participants study and discuss teaching ideas, techniques, and materials from global education and its component fields of peace education, human rights education, environmental education, and development education. During the course, students examine global education teaching materials, experience global education learning activities, and experiment with designing and teaching foreign language lessons which promote global awareness and international understanding.

Course readings and assignments

Course readings comprise: (a) a 200-page pre-course reading pack consisting of key articles on global education, and (b) an in-class lending library of global education books from the instructor's private collection. A special feature of the practicum is that students are required to

design, teach, and evaluate a model global education language lesson in their own schools. These lessons are video-taped and observed by a mentor, then analyzed and discussed in the MA classroom.

Course assignments include: (a) a reaction paper to the pre-course reading packet; (b) oral and written book reports on global education books and global issue EFL texts; (c) a class presentation of a group-designed language lesson on a global issues theme; (d) a fieldwork assignment requiring students to visit and write a profile of a global education or global issue organization (e.g., Amnesty International, UNICEF); and (e) two major global education papers or projects on a topic of the students' choice.

Student projects have ranged from materials writing and curriculum design to textbook analysis and educational research. Sample student projects include: "A Survey of Students' Global Awareness and Geographic Literacy," "A Survey of EFL Teacher Beliefs about Global Education," "A Global Issue Content Analysis of High School English Textbooks," "A One-year Global Education Course for Senior High School EFL," "A Study on Global Education and Language Acquisition," "A Children's EFL Lesson on Environmental Issues," "A College EFL Lesson Design on Tropical Rainforests," "An EFL Lesson Plan for Preventing Bullying," "An EFL Lesson Plan on Sex Role Stereotyping," and "Teaching about World Regions in EFL."

The course has been popular and participants have been enthusiastic. I would urge teacher training institutions to introduce similar courses in their own programs to help language teachers add a global perspective to their work.

Global education and language teacher training at LIOJ

Jim Kahny

How does one become a "global teacher"? At the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ), the global education training approach emphasizes contact between individuals. LIOJ programs and activities are geared toward giving teachers the opportunity to develop international awareness through exchanging ideas with colleagues from other countries. Below is an overview of teacher training activities that the school has been involved with in recent years.

International summer workshop

The International Summer Workshop for Teachers of English has been an annual event at LIOJ since 1969, making it one of the oldest ongoing teacher training conferences in Japan. The program features guests and activities which add a global perspective to language teachers' professional development. Fifteen countries were represented among the 130 participants and guests at the 1998 workshop, including teachers of English from various countries in Asia.

The workshop program is planned with secondary school teachers in mind; however, the variety of topics covered in classes and presentations are relevant to the larger group of language educators. During the workshop, participants attend a morning class that meets throughout the week. Morning course choices range from English language classes in which teachers can "brush up" on their English, to special-focus classes in which teachers can explore a particular aspect of English language education. With regard to global issues training, the 1998 workshop featured a class entitled "Internationalizing Your English Class" conducted by Kip Cates (Tottori University). In this class, participants explored a variety of classroom methods and materials using games, music, role play, and video with the goal of bringing an international perspective to their language teaching.

In the afternoons, participants select from a variety of presentations. Participants learn about various issues in language education in other countries. Titles with a global perspective from among the 47 presentations at the 1998 workshop included "The Recent Reform of English Education in Thailand: Effects on

Teachers" by Naraporn Chan-ocha (Chulalongkorn University), "English Education in Post-1997 Hong Kong" by Becky Kwan (City University of Hong Kong), "English Education in Laos" by Sengdeuane Lachanthaboun (Lao Ministry of Education), "Activities for Raising Cultural Awareness" by Susan Stempleski (Columbia University), "How English Grammar is Taught at Secondary Schools in Vietnam" by Tran Van Phuoc (Hue National University), and "English Education in Korea" by Yeom Ji-sook (Korea TESOL).

"International Night" is the name of the annual social and cultural event which is held during the workshop. Country display booths and cultural performances courtesy of our guests and teachers are the main feature. The goal of this event is to give everyone a chance to meet and to learn about various aspects each other's countries, including music, food, culture, and arts and crafts.

Thailand/Japan team teaching exchange
In cooperation with the Department of Linguistics at Srinakharinwirot University (SWU) in Bangkok, LIOJ established this teacher exchange program in 1993 to give Japanese secondary school teachers of English the opportunity to travel to Thailand and team up with a Thai counterpart, and to experience team teaching from a valuable new perspective: that of the visiting teacher. The exchange, which also involves a visit by the Thai teacher to Japan to team teach in the Japanese teacher's school, runs for approximately two weeks in mid-August (in Thailand) and approximately two weeks in mid-October (in Japan). The program affords participating teachers, their colleagues, and their students the opportunity to develop greater awareness on a variety of levels. Students' responses in surveys indicate that, as a result of the program, they feel that (a) they need to study English more, and (b) their image of the country and people of the visiting teacher has become more positive (Kahny, 1998).

ELT publication
In commemoration of its 30th anniversary, LIOJ published *Perspectives on Secondary School EFL Education* (Kahny & James, 1998), a collection of 39 articles by educators from 14 different countries. POSSEE features several articles on intercultural training and English as an international language. A special "Focus on Asia" section features a discussion on EFL education by teachers in countries around the Asia-Pacific region, including Korea, China, Hong Kong, the Philippines, Indonesia, Vietnam, Cambodia, Thailand, and India.

JALT Asian scholars
The JALT 4Corners Asian educator scholarship program has given many teachers in Japan the opportunity to meet colleagues from other Asian countries and learn firsthand about English education in other contexts. LIOJ has been pleased to assist with visa sponsorship of the JALT scholars over the past four years from Malaysia (1998), the Philippines (1997), Laos (1996), and China (1995).

Global Issues in the English teachers' seminar at the Prefectural University of Kumamoto
Daniel Kirk
The English Teachers' Seminar at the Prefectural University of Kumamoto, established in 1991, has been offered primarily to Japanese secondary school teachers of English. The scheduling of the seminar has varied over the eight years of its existence, but is now a three-phase program covering a six-month period. One of the main aims of the seminar is to involve teachers as much as possible in the organization and execution of the program. The inclusion of Global Issues in Language Education (GILE) as a focus is not guaranteed because teachers have the option of choosing to focus on other topics. However, teachers have chosen to include global issues in the program for several years.

During the seminar, participants experience various aspects related to global issues. First, global issues are brought to the attention of the teachers. A framework for understanding these issues is then provided. At the same time, participants also receive help in developing their language abilities in order to communicate their ideas on global issues. In addition, participants explore methods for incorporating global issues ideas into their classrooms in ways that will be beneficial to their students.

Over the seminar's eight-year history, participants' responsibilities have changed from participating in a program that the coordinators created, to determining for themselves the content and length of time to be spent on each topic. Global issues has been offered as one of the options for several years under the title "Planethood: Global Issues in Language Education." For the past two years, teachers have chosen to focus on other themes (e.g., "Reflective Development," "Learner Strategies," "Culture"). Even when the teachers do choose other content, global activities are often a part of the other seminars. Activities such as confidence- and trust-building are often used in periods dedicated to warm-up and getting-to-know-you events. There is such a great overlap between global issues and intercultural understanding. Therefore, in the culture workshop, activities that the teachers enjoy participating in and can incorporate into their own classrooms, such as units on fostering global citizenship, are often included.

The greatest challenge facing teachers who would like to incorporate global issues in their classrooms is presenting these themes in language that is beneficial to their students. Vocabulary and grammar often block teachers' progress in developing useful classroom materials. Various options are presented that make it possible for teachers, even at a junior high school level, to incorporate global issues. In doing a simple language activity, for example, when a student asks another, "What's his name?" the leap from "His name is Michael" to "His name is Martin Luther King" just is not that far. Teachers provide photos and explanations of famous human rights leaders, real people with real lives.

Unfortunately, the seminar will not be offered through the Prefectural University of Kumamoto in 1999; however, the coordinators have decided to continue the seminar on a personal and voluntary basis, working with the teachers of Kumamoto prefecture in order to foster the growth of global issues as language educational tools. Public universities can and should play an important role in training teachers to become global educators.

Conclusion

While much has been written about global issues and language teaching, this JALT colloquium was the first official forum to address the topic of global education and language teacher training. We hope the ideas presented here encourage classroom practitioners to begin seeing themselves as "global language teachers." We also hope the case studies cited encourage certificate, undergraduate and MA-level teacher training programs to include a global education component so as to better prepare the language teachers of the future to add a global perspective to their work.

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English Language Needs Analysis for EST Students

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In this paper, we report on the findings of a two-year study assessing the English language needs of students at a private technical university in Japan. A needs analysis was conducted to ascertain which English-specific tasks were required of Kanazawa Institute of Technology (KIT) students in non-English classes and after graduation upon entering the work force. After establishing "task" as the theoretically based unit of analysis, five members of the Needs Analysis Committee then systematically investigated English language requirements in both class work at the university and in the workplace. This was done through the use of interviews and questionnaires which targeted four main groups: professors, students, employers of graduates, and graduates in the work force. A descriptive statistical analysis indicated that there are meaningful real world tasks which can be implemented and adapted for learning purposes in the classroom.

本論は，日本の私立工業大学における学生の英語教育のニーズに関する二年間に渡る調査の結果報告である。ニーズ分析調査は，金沢工業大学 (KIT) において，学生は英語以外の教科ではどのような英語力を要求されるか，また，学生が卒業後社会に出てどのような英語力を要求されるかを明らかにする目的で行われた。ニーズ分析調査委員会委員 5 名は，「タスク」を分析の理論的な基礎単位と規定し，大学での課題作成において要求される英語力と実社会で要求される英語力とを体系的に調査研究した。調査は，4 つのグループ－大学の教員，学生，企業で働く卒業生，およびその雇用企業－を調査対象とし，面接とアンケート調査によって行われた。統計分析の結果，実社会の要求に則し，また大学での学習の目的にも合致するタスクが教室に取り入れられる可能性が示唆された。

In 1995, Kanazawa Institute of Technology (KIT) implemented broad changes to its curriculum. In order to specify course content better for the new curriculum, the Basic Language Education Research Laboratory of the General Education Department organized the Needs Project Team (NPT) to conduct a language needs analysis of the types of tasks that students were required to do in English, both in their studies at KIT, and in the workplace after graduation.

The role of needs analyses in language curriculum design has gained increased attention in recent years. This has partially resulted from evolving views of language and teaching over the past two decades. One such example is Canale's (1983) analysis of "communicative competence." In an earlier reference to the communicative syllabus, Munby (1978) advocates the creation of profiles reflecting students' communicative needs to identify specific linguistic forms to teach. Brown (1995) offers a more comprehensive view of needs analysis in the language classroom. He argues for "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information" (p. 36) necessary for specifying and validating the curriculum, and appropriate for meeting the students' learning needs.

One of the essential proponents of task as a unit of analysis is Nunan (1989). He distinguishes between "real world" and "pedagogical" tasks, which are differentiated simply by the task's purpose. Since students at KIT are being prepared for jobs where they maybe required to use English, the identification of relevant real world tasks by means of a needs analysis is seen as an essential part of the new curriculum development process.

For this needs project, the unit of analysis used to reflect the students' language needs was "task," i.e., an English language task required of the students. Two research questions motivated this project. Firstly, what tasks were the students required to complete using English at school, and secondly, what tasks were the students required to complete using English once in the workplace? It was hoped that the findings of this project would not only enhance curriculum development at KIT, but also provide an indicator of current trends in English use at the Japanese workplace.

Methods

Participants

Thirty-nine faculty members, including the heads of the Engineering and General Education Cores at KIT, participated in preliminary "on-campus" interviews. A total of 250 faculty members at instructor/lecturer level or higher, as well as 4,500 students who had enrolled at KIT in April 1995 and April 1996 received "on-campus" questionnaires. "Off-campus" questionnaires were sent to managers of 1,200 companies that employed at least four KIT graduates, and to 3,000 KIT alumni randomly selected from the graduating classes of 1988, 1990, and 1994.

Materials

For the on-campus interviews, a draft of 10 questions was prepared by the NPT prior to the approval of the KIT administration. Revised interview questions with a bilingual cover letter were distributed to the heads of the Engineering and General Education Cores. Two on-campus questionnaires dealt with tasks performed in English within a classroom or laboratory setting, along with perceived usage of English in the workplace by the students after they had graduated. Except for audience-related grammatical differences, the questions asked on the questionnaires were the same for faculty and students. The bilingual questionnaires for the faculty derived originally from the English version were elaborated by the NPT. The students' questionnaire was provided only in Japanese to increase the likelihood of students responding openly and honestly with minimal misunderstanding. Two off-campus questionnaires dealing with tasks performed in English within a job setting were also developed by the NPT. For all

questionnaires, grammatical differences depending on the target audience, revisions, translations, and English/Japanese formatting were consistent. In summary, questions focused on tasks performed at the workplace. Bilingual cover letters, explaining the needs project and time frames, accompanied the on– and off– campus questionnaires. Machine-readable answer sheets and computer software were designed by the KIT computer department.

Procedure

Interviews were arranged and conducted with 33 Core Heads or a designated Core faculty member. The language used for the interview was either English or Japanese, depending on the preference of the interviewee. Student questionnaires were administered during orientation; faculty versions were distributed via campus mail; and company managers and KIT alumni were mailed theirs along with prepaid-postage return envelopes for the completed answer sheets. The KIT Job Placement Office provided a list of company managers, and Microsoft Excel was used to randomly select alumni from the designated years who would be sent questionnaires. The returned answer sheets were put through the reading machine and the data file was imported into the statistics program ready to be analyzed.

Results

For the on-campus questionnaires, 114 faculty responded with 9% from Mechanical Engineering, 8% from Mechanical Systems Engineering, Materials Science & Engineering, Environmental Systems, and Civil Engineering respectively, and lower percentages from the rest of the fields. The faculty reported that primarily they teach first–, second–, and third– year students. In addition, 3,515 second-year and third-year students responded with 14% from Information & Computer Engineering and Architecture respectively, 10% from Mechanical Engineering, Mechanical Systems Engineering, and Electronics respectively, and lower percentages from the rest of the fields.

Off campus, 338 company managers responded, with 30% in the field of Construction (road, architecture, and housing), 17% in Manufacturing (electronics), 13% in Manufacturing (general machinery), and lower percentages from the rest of the fields. In the case of the KIT alumni, 447 responded, with 24% in Manufacturing (electronics), 19% in Construction (road, architecture, and housing), 13% in Manufacturing (general machinery), and lower percentages from the rest of the fields.

Discussion

Discussion of the results

The purpose of the needs analysis conducted in this study was to gain information in order to specify course content better for the new curriculum at KIT. The needs analysis focused on the types of English language tasks students were required to do, both in their studies at KIT and in the workplace after graduation. The results of the needs analysis indicate that there are indeed specific types of reading, writing, listening and speaking tasks that the students are required to complete at different times during their study and work.

Reading tasks for KIT students include viewing material such as overhead transparencies, computer-mediated presentations such as those made with Microsoft PowerPoint, blackboard material, and video. Interestingly, they are either never required, or not required very often, to follow written instructions in English, even in handouts. With regard to the future, 68% of both students and professors indicated that when they used English, up to one quarter of the time would be spent reading. An additional 23% of them think that reading would take up to half of the time they would be using English at work.

In the workplace, 57% of the graduated students indicated that when they are working in English; up to one quarter of their time is spent reading; 13% said from one quarter to half of the time; another 13%

said from half to three quarters of the time; and 17% said from three quarters to all of their time using English would be for reading tasks. These tasks range from reading basic printed material to computer-mediated forms such as Internet documents and e-mail. For example, 23% of the alumni reported that while at work they have to read Internet documents, 22% instructional manuals, 20% professional journals, 17% e-mail, 16% research papers, 13% books and 12% said they have to read business letters, all in English.

Writing tasks for KIT students are very similar to reading tasks, in that the students are not often required to complete those tasks in English. However, students and professors said that written English is required in order to gather information from the Internet and to write bibliographies. In reference to articles written in English for publication, and e-mail, English is almost never required. When asked about future usage of English in the workplace for writing tasks, 73% of the students and faculty indicated that writing tasks would take up to one quarter of their time, and 19% said it would take from one quarter to half of their time spent working in English.

In fact, 82% of the alumni indicated that up to one quarter of the time while working in English is spent writing, and low percentages reported that it took up more of their time. There was a narrower range of tasks than for reading in English; of 15 listed tasks, the most common were writing assembly and usage instructions, composing messages in e-mail, and writing business letters. Interestingly, employers believe that their employees are writing in English much more than the employees indicated. Employers' and employees' responses were vastly different for such tasks as the writing of contracts, business letters, research papers, equipment assembly and usage instructions, and e-mail messages.

In terms of speaking, KIT students are hardly ever required to complete tasks in which they use English words and phrases. Despite that, 70% of the professors and students indicated that up to one quarter of the time would be spent speaking when using English at work, and another 21% felt that speaking would occupy about one quarter to half of their time using English.

In the workplace, 84% of the alumni claim that speaking tasks, primarily for business trips, telephone conversations, and participation in meetings, take up to one quarter of their time when using English. This is fairly consistent with professors' and students' expectations of English use in the workplace.

According to professors and students at KIT, required listening tasks are at a minimum. However, 64% of the students and professors indicated that up to one quarter of their English usage time in the workplace would be spent in listening tasks, and another 24% felt listening would take about one quarter to half of their time.

Listening tasks in the workplace paralleled the speaking tasks reported by the alumni. Eighty-one per cent indicated that they are spending up to one quarter of the time listening while using English for work, most often for business trips, telephone conversations, and participation at meetings. Other listening tasks included presentations, entertainment of visitors, and conferences/symposia.

Although viewing tasks often require listening, KIT professors and students said that the regular KIT coursework spent minimal time viewing materials such as videos and computer-mediated forms.

As stated earlier, the main focus of this needs analysis was language tasks, but another area investigated was the role of English in general as a tool for job placement. Here it was found that companies do not appear to value this role as highly as the professors and students do. Fifty-six per cent of the on-campus responses showed that English ability is considered "somewhat important" when a company hires a worker, and 25% indicated it to be "very important." In contrast, the off-campus responses indicated that 52% regard English ability for hiring purposes as

"not very important"; 24% as "not important at all"; 22% as "somewhat important"; and only 2% regarding it as "very important". However, when asked about the future use of English in the workplace, only 39% of the company managers and alumni stated that the work-related activities they do in English would stay the same or decrease. Thirty-three per cent said that those activities would increase a little, and another 28% said that such activities would increase a lot in the future. Implied here is an increased need for English ability in the Japanese workplace, which is consistent with current educational and international policy reforms in Japan.

Recommendations

Syllabus design reflects both the changing views of language learning and teaching as well as the inherent language needs of the students. This study of the language needs of present KIT students and alumni in the work force indicates that a range of tasks which involve reading, writing, listening, and speaking tasks would be beneficial to preparing KIT students for the use of English in the work place.

Based on the information compiled during this study, tasks for developing reading competencies in English should include reading professional journals, reading equipment assembly and usage instructions, and reading various Internet documents/articles which are relevant to students' fields of study. Similarly, writing tasks should include writing instructions for equipment assembly and usage, drafting business letters, and composing e-mail messages. Furthermore, the development of listening and speaking competencies could be facilitated by including specific listening /speaking tasks, including but not limited to, telephone conversations and both participation at meetings and on business trips. The types of tasks specific to participation at meetings and on business trips merit further investigation.

Conclusion

This needs analysis indicates that there are meaningful real world tasks which can be implemented and adapted for learning purposes in the classroom. It is hoped that by directing our students' learning toward more relevant, real world contexts, they will be better equipped to apply what they have learned in the classroom to the types of tasks they will be assigned in the work place. In addition, it is hoped that exposure to, and practice with these tasks in the classroom will translate into functionality and confidence for those confronted with English in the workplace.

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CALL: Classroom Interactions

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William Bradley, Ryukoku University
Paul Daniels, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Technology
Joseph Dias, Kitasato University
James Wada, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Technology

CALL transforms both the perception and the reality of classroom interactions, overturning the usual centrality of the teacher. These presentations show ways classroom interactions are affected by computer-assisted language learning and information technology. Representing a cross-section of instructional settings, we discuss CALL's effects on teacher and student interactions, note its influence on teacher knowledge as a mediator of instructional practice, and offer a variety of CALL activities that meet both curricular and real world goals. Drawing from his interviews of teachers using CALL, the first presenter illustrates how teachers' beliefs about the nature and role of computers in learning language shape their classroom instruction. Secondly, a team of university instructors engaged in a collaborative action research project discuss how they integrated CALL activities to promote interaction in large classes. The final presenters explain how to go about selecting meaningful, student-centered CALL activities.

コンピューターの重要な貢献の一つは，教師を中心とした通例の教授法を変えることである。これらの発表はコンピューター使用語学学習と情報技術によってどのような教室の相互行為への影響があるかを明らかにする。異なる CALL 教室設備の例を取り上げ，発表者は CALL による教師と学生の間の相互作用について，教授法の実践者としての教師の信念への影響や，語学教育カリキュラムならびに実生活上の目的の達成に向けた多数の CALL 活動について発表をし，それぞれの観点から意見を提供する。第一の論者は CALL を使用している教師へのインタビューの結果から，語学教育におけるコンピューターの能力と役割に対する教師の考えがどのように教授方法を具体化するかを説明する。第二の論者である大学の講師は，学生数の多い授業においての学生間コミュニケーションの機会を促すための共同研究プロジェトを行い，どのように CALL を活用したかについて説明する。最終論者は学生が主体となって行う CALL による有意義なコミュニケーション活動の選び方について説明をする。

Introduction

The purpose of this colloquium is to provide a shared insight into how teachers are attempting to bridge the gap between beliefs about CALL—or, more broadly, about optimal ways of teaching/learning languages—and actual classroom practice. The effect that computers can have on interactions between students and teachers, among the students themselves, between teachers, and on teacher knowledge is an area of growing interest. What ties the contributions to this colloquium together is the idea running through them that teachers' knowledge and beliefs, as primary mediators of instructional practice, guide any effort to integrate CALL software, the Internet, interactive multimedia, and other forms of information technology into a curriculum.

Bill Bradley discusses the increased focus in educational computing on teachers' beliefs, the way they are put into practice and to what ends. His presentation is based on interviews with language teachers who are both novice and more experienced users of CALL. These interviews highlight changes which occur in beliefs about teaching and learning as teachers gain

experience in CALL.

Next, David Brooks and Joseph Dias discuss their cooperative effort to act on their belief in CALL's motivating potential by bringing it into classes of university health science majors despite a lack of adequate computer facilities and computer support staff. They describe the process of negotiating how computers would be used, the actual implementation (including problems), and the repercussions.

Finally, Paul Daniels and James Wada exemplify users of CALL who have developed skill in integrating computers into their classrooms to support the collaborative and communicative learning environment they believe in. They present a variety of student-generated projects built upon real world tasks and introduce questions that can be used to assess the meaningfulness of CALL activities and the degree to which they support course goals.

Teacher knowledge and computers
Bill Bradley

Recent studies focusing on teacher knowledge show the efficacy of inquiring into teachers' belief systems as a way of understanding how these beliefs frame practice. Teachers develop theoretical knowledge that supports the way they utilize computers in their teaching. As they become more experienced, their ideas about collaboration evolve and they may gain finesse in using computers to create tasks and a desired learning environment. In the course of my interviews with teachers, some showed a shift from viewing activities as computer-centered to seeing them as focused on ways to learn. Others described how their definition of "constructive learning" changed from the making of a product to students' involvement with their learning processes. While the findings do not indicate a uniform evolution of theoretical knowledge, they suggest that teachers more experienced in using computers are interested in moving beyond discussion of "what works" to discussions of "integrating new skills in their unique learning environments."

A lack of focus on theories of instruction and learning, an educational perspective in short, has been a major impediment to sustained critical reflection or evaluation of CALL (Galloway and O'Brien, 1998). However, this situation is changing. Research in the U.S. by the Office of Technology Assessment (1995), the Panel on Educational Technology (1997), Armstrong and Yetter-Vassot (1994), Murrison-Bowie (1993) and Bruce and Rubin's (1993) emphasis on situated evaluation all point to the growing view that in the next stage of computer-mediated teaching and learning there will be an increased focus on what teachers do, how they do it, how it fits with their goals and beliefs, how it is integrated in a curriculum, and most of all, what outcomes may be measured or interpreted.

Why are these questions so important? In the absence of sustained reflection, normative practices embedded in a "union of information technologies and cognitive psychology," as Popkewitz and Shutkin (1993, p. 27) call it, are dominant. In this view, "student and teacher competence become defined through the discourses of technologies originally designed to *augment* classroom practices." The language of rationality and reason borrowed from science and the mechanistic language of the computer are made into a language of thinking and learning.

I have already noted there has been an increased focus in educational computing on what it is teachers do and how they do it. One of the longer term studies that has been conducted by researchers of the Apple Classrooms of Tomorrow (ACOT) project (see Dwyer, Ringstaff and Sandholtz, 1991; Sandholtz, Ringstaff and Dwyer, 1992, 1997) chronicles how teachers progress through stages of entry, adoption, adaptation, appropriation, and impact. Schofield (1995), in another long range study, concluded that a focus on teachers and their knowledge was imperative if the potential of computers in classrooms were to be realized.

This perspective also fits well with a growing body of work in TESOL, as exemplified in recent articles by Freeman and Johnson (1998), which suggests that teacher education, and the teacher knowledge-base more generally, have not received the emphasis they deserve, in contrast to the situation in general education. Thus, in reality, what I have identified as a problem of CALL may be part of the larger picture of how TESOL has been traditionally defined.

In an article that raises important questions for evaluation of language teaching, Peterson (1997) hypothesizes on the possible positive and negative effects of both synchronous and asynchronous conferencing, learner and teacher roles, and collaboration, among others. However, the implication that they constitute competing hypotheses, parts of which may be validated or invalidated, misses the point that the mediational capacities of computers allows for multiple definitions and constructions at each stage of activity. Thus, just as we should hope to avoid technological determinism we must also avoid humanistic determinism. We need to see what is not neutral in the socio-technical systems just as we need to avoid premature foreclosure which may prevent us from finding new ways of teaching and learning.

Promoting interaction in large classes with CALL

David Brooks and Joseph Dias

In attempting to address the perennial problems of low motivation and large class size, changes were introduced in the English classes jointly conducted by the presenters for 400 university health science students. This presentation summarizes how changes in classroom organization, in the types and range of learner-centered activities, and in the level of student self-direction are facilitated with the integration of computers and information technology.

Why collaborate and why CALL?

The reasons for collaborating on a project integrating CALL into a course focusing on English communication were to: (a) experiment with curricular change in an oral English program that we felt had little consistency among teachers or integration of content, methods and goals; (b) exploit students' relatively good command of reading and writing and show them how those strengths could support the development of English speaking and listening skills; (c) break the shackles of Japanese classroom culture which implicitly dictates that initiating moves are made by the teacher; (d) better serve the needs of particularly keen students by providing a greater menu of activities that can be accomplished at an accelerated pace; (e) share limited computer facilities amicably; (f) prove to others in our department that despite obstacles to change and cooperation among teachers toward common goals, it is possible and worth pursuing; (g) act on our belief that CALL holds promise for increasing learner autonomy (Tudor, 1996); and (h) provide a springboard for collaborative teacher development (Bailey, 1996).

The measure of success

We felt that if our efforts to integrate CALL into our classes were successful there would be:

(1) an increase in meaningful opportunities for speaking/listening, as most students were computer neophytes and would need to ask teachers and classmates for assistance. It can be argued that in Internet discourse itself the distinction between spoken and written language becomes blurred (Garner and Gillingham, 1996) in a way that can be beneficial to the development of oral communication skills (Chun, 1994).
(2) higher motivation, which we measured by administering before and after surveys that included items about overall orientation towards learning English and learning English through CALL. Lieberman (1998) offers details of a

study in which students overwhelmingly opted for an English course that included the use of e-mail, the Internet, and specialized computer software for English language practice.

(3) the formation of basic computer skills and a familiarity with how the computer can be used to facilitate English language learning, which we hoped would allow students to carry on their study and use of English even after required English courses were completed.

(4) a boost in the level of confidence among students that they could initiate and carry on "conversations" in English (both in person and through e-mail) with native speakers and other EFL learners.

The changes and how they were implemented

In addition to using a commercial course text that presents basic functions and topics—greetings, introductions, directions, invitations, etc.—computer lessons were conducted that, after the fundamentals were covered, provided practical opportunities to put to use what was studied in the text. Students were required to follow rather complicated directions, written in English, to register for their own Web-based e-mail accounts. They were then taught how to navigate the WWW and locate Dave's ESL Cafe, where they submitted self-introductions to a student e-mail page and "shopped" for an e-mail partner from a foreign country. After students gained familiarity with e-mail, they were asked to subscribe to a class mailing list set up by the instructors. At this point many students had difficulty and turned to the teachers and classmates for help. After the majority of students had successfully "subscribed," tasks were set up that revisited themes and functions from the course text. One such task involved using the WWW to find out about an event happening in the Tokyo area and then, using the class mailing list, inviting classmates to the event. In another activity students wrote messages to the list describing their part-time work or ideal future job and "discussed" their experiences and dreams by responding/reacting to the messages sent by others. In more advanced classes, students were taught how to use the authoring program HyperStudio to create their own program introducing themselves and an aspect of their major they considered to be especially fascinating. These HyperStudio "stacks" will ultimately be linked to a Web site so that classmates and students abroad can view and appreciate them.

The results of the changes

The practical "information gap" that existed between the knowledge and skills needed to do the CALL activities (register for the free e-mail account, subscribe to the class mailing list, read, write, and reply to e-mail) was an important motivator in getting students to communicate in English more than we had ever observed before. The accompanying "resource gap", although leading to frustration at times, had the positive effect of increasing student-teacher communication and collaborative problem-solving (e.g., working together to find ways to complete assignments on time despite computer breakdowns and a poor student/computer ratio).

In a follow-up reflective assignment, the majority of students reported that the e-mail, Internet and software authoring projects were interesting and useful, not only for learning English but also for their present academic lives and future careers in the health and medical professions. The results of our before and after attitudinal survey, which was also administered to students in oral English classes who did not receive CALL instruction (about 1700 students in all), will provide a fuller picture of the effects of the changes. Finally, this collaborative action research project opened up a positive, on-going dialogue between the two teacher-researchers about teacher beliefs, instructional goals, classroom practice, and useful resources.

Evaluating collaborative activities in the CALL classroom

Paul Daniels and James Wada

With the manifold increase of networked computers, Internet access, and new capabilities of educational software, we have seen a dramatic change in the role of the computer as a medium for enhancing language learning. Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) activities have shifted from "students learning *from* computers" to "students learning *with* computers". CALL has become a tool that facilitates collaboration and interaction among students and teachers alike as they tap into resources of networked computers by creating online exchanges with distant classes or publishing on web sites for both a local and global audience. Learning environ-ments that combine computers and collaborative learning encourage learners to engage in a learning process that leads to the creation of a product for which they are responsible (Bruffee, 1993).

How does one select or create projects and activities when faced with the myriad software, Web sites, mailing lists, etc. that are available? We would like to propose some guidelines for evaluating CALL activities that support a collabora-tive and communicative learning environ-ment.

Guidelines for evaluating CALL activities

(1) Are the activities meaningful to the learner? Are they intended to fulfill real world goals? Meaningful and contextualized problems are retained in the learners' memory longer and are better adapted to real world problems students will face outside the classroom. Authentic problems serve as a stimulus for learning (Barrows, 1994). Project-based activities allow students to use self-generated knowledge or knowledge they have brought with them to the classroom. Activities that allow for input and decision-making can assist students in beginning to construct higher order thinking skills (Jacobson, 1995). Activities could include the sharing of expert knowledge— whether it is Japanese popular music or kendo—and the collection and presentation of data derived from surveys or interviews.

(2) Are the activities communicative? An ideal CALL environment does not restrict group work and collaboration. The layout of the lab or classroom can play an important role in shaping the communicative learning space. Group work supports a modeling and observing type of learning that's typical of how learning occurs in the real world (Farrar, 1995). The trend in CALL today is to treat the networked lab as a communication tool. Although stand-alone self-learning programs where the learner interacts with the computer have some advantages, the computer as an interactive tool has more potential for *motivating* target language use. The computer takes a backseat while the language or information being exchanged comes to the foreground.

(3) Are CALL activities created with the syllabus in mind? CALL activities should stem from the course syllabus, not squeezed in as an afterthought. Only by first sitting down and examining the syllabus can one determine what software or CALL activities mesh with regular classroom work. For some classes, this may mean using the computer only two or three times a semester. With classroom exchange projects, for example, students can generate ideas for exchange orally in class, send and receive e-mail on their own outside of class, and later bring printouts of their exchanges to class for discussion or to incorporate into writing assignments.

Examples of meaningful and communicative CALL projects

"Classroom connect" projects facilitate authentic language use and increase student motivation. A goal-directed project can involve two or more distant classes selecting tasks and solving problems collaboratively.

Information collected over a term can be used to compare two or more cultures. Comparisons might be made, for example, of holidays, educational systems or even prices of everyday consumer goods.

Student-produced databases are another type of collaborative activity that involve authentic language and a purpose: providing useful information to others. They can lead to the transfer of information on local travel sites, restaurants, or educational statistics. Students may be sent out into the community to collect images, answers to interview questions, or stories of personal experiences. A final product might take the form of a multimedia presentation using a web page editor or PowerPoint.

Communication with learners from other cultures brings new and abundant ideas into the classroom, motivates the learner, and provides a non-threatening, self-paced environment in which to communicate in the target language. Following these guidelines for evaluating CALL tasks and activities will support a learning environment that is collaborative and communicative. However, tasks involving CALL are only as successful as the rationale and planning that go into them.

Concluding thoughts

Paralleling the increasing sophistication of both specialized CALL software and software appropriated by language teachers for use in CALL settings has been a steady evolution in the ability and willingness of these teachers to harness its power for ends consistent with their beliefs. Discussion has progressed beyond the simplistic question of "what works" and now confronts more thorny, but important, issues such as learner autonomy, the value of collaboration and how it can be fostered, and what constitutes meaningful tasks. As teacher and student perceptions about the possibilities of classroom interaction change, so too do the participants themselves. Teachers become action researchers, looking into ways in which changes in classroom organization and in expectations for learner self-direction can be facilitated with computers and information technology. Students gain greater autonomy. It is becoming increasingly recognized that ESL/EFL techniques and tasks for communicative, student-centered classrooms lend themselves well to CALL, but it is essential that teachers continue to question how this new instructional media can interlace with their beliefs and goals. It is through this questioning process that growth is possible.

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Developing a Self-Access Center

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In this paper, we describe the development of a self-access center that provides opportunities for students to acquire autonomous learning skills in a Japanese university. The institutional issues of setting up and administering a center are explained, as is the development of audio-visual, reading, and language arts content materials. We also present how students are involved in the growth of the center.

大学生に自主的な学習技能の獲得を援助するための自習アクセスセンターの役割を考察する。日本の大学におけるさまざまな組織的，管理的，経済的な要素を説明しながら自習アクセスセンターの設置の可能性を探る。自習アクセスセンターにふさわしい視聴覚，読解，文法などの教材の作成を記述し，その開発過程に於ける，学生の関わり方を検討する。

Developing a self-access center

Faced with a shrinking Japanese college-aged population, together with shifts in the kind of demands for higher education among this decreasing population, our institution, Kyushu Jogakuin, embarked on creating a four-year college out of an existing two-year college. In doing so, we inherited a facility that we did not need: a language laboratory still in good working order. As the laboratory was one of the few examples of educational technology that our small institution possessed, we were strongly advised in our curriculum design to make use of it.

We decided to convert the language laboratory into a self-access center. We were attracted to the idea because it would allow us to use the laboratory in a manner consonant with our communicative English language curriculum. It would also enable us to provide other educational options for students: A self-access center would offer a flexible learning center that could accommodate a wide range of learning strategies (Sheerin, 1989). By facilitating students in self-accessing materials, teachers could help students to learn on their own and become autonomous learners. Our efforts were not simply aimed at letting students make the most use out of a particular self-access center. Rather, we worked from the assumption that students need autonomous learning strategies in order to support their self-study through their academic careers and future lives. Furthermore, becoming an autonomous learner did not need to be entirely limited to learning to work in solitude. A self-access center could also provide a venue for students to work together, where they could access materials collaboratively and learn both with and from each other.

Staffing

There are three levels of staffing requirements in a self-access center. These are for materials development, student orientation and facilitation, and care-taking needs. If self-access materials are part of course requirements, then the faculty of the particular course must be involved in materials development. This is especially necessary in the early stages of starting up a center; it also remains important in later stages so that a degree of relevance can be maintained between sessions in the classroom and the self-access center. In our situation, individual teaching faculty members have taken responsibility for certain kinds of learning material. Each teacher is responsible for creating materials, adapting published materials, and making recommendations for procuring new materials. Since the self-access center serves a variety of students, another staffing option involves assigning a trained staff person to organize the continual acquisitions of popular kinds of materials, just as a librarian does in a library.

To orient students and to foster their self-access learning, an ELT-trained staff person is needed. If an untrained staff person runs the center, qualified faculty members must carry out student orientations and take charge of working directly with students. For courses that require self-access learning, it is useful for faculty to come occasionally to the center to assist and be available for the students.

It is also advantageous to have support staff to watch over the center. In our experience, having a staff member present at all open times has reduced the number of thefts. Putting the materials in order and seeing that the equipment is in a good state of repair are also important staff responsibilities. An untrained person, such as a student working part-time, can perform some of these tasks.

Funding

The funding of a self-access center relates to three areas: the physical development, staffing, and acquisition of materials and equipment. One big attraction to self-access centers is the low cost, particularly if a facility like a language laboratory is already in existence. Currently, the Self-Access Center at Kyushu Lutheran College

covers three rooms: the language laboratory, a smaller listening room, and a 60-seat classroom.

Staffing costs can be minimal, depending on the degree of teaching faculty involvement. If an ELT-trained staff person is present, all orientation and facilitation, as well as materials acquisition, can be managed by one person. To help the facility remain open, during university library hours, student part-timers can be hired. A self-access center staffed in such a fashion can become attractive to administrators because extra course hours can be added without the cost of additional teaching faculty.

Another attraction in developing a self-access center is that existing audio-visual material in a language laboratory or study material from a departmental resource room can be adapted so that students can self-access the materials. The administrative attraction here is that materials for a self-access center need not begin from zero.

Content

Apart from facilitating students in self-access learning, creating and adapting materials for a self-access format constitute the pivotal task in self-access development. Certain general principles apply in preparing such materials. First, answer keys must be made available to students so that they can self-correct. Second, materials need to be graded according to skill level. Third, copyright laws must be respected despite the temptation to copy materials.

Audio-tapes

The Self-Access Center at Kyushu Lutheran College is currently equipped with numerous standardized audio-tapes and accompanying textbooks organized in boxes. Each box contains between two and four copies of each listening text. A text, with an accompanying tape and answer key, is placed in a clear plastic zip-lock bag for easy access and storage. All materials are color-coded for level of difficulty.

In addition to the standardized textbook exercises, there is currently a small section of classroom dialogues used in our Intensive English program. These dialogues are original materials written and recorded by teachers, and packaged like the standardized texts. Students can use these materials to review or to catch up on classes they may have missed. Since these classroom tapes are generally easier than the commercial ones in the Center, they can be used to introduce students, especially those with lower skills levels, to working in a self-access environment. This helps build the confidence they need to move on to the more advanced materials.

Responses from students indicate that many are enthusiastic about knowing that what they have studied in class is included in the Self-Access Center for further practice. These findings strongly suggest a need for integration of classroom and self-access materials. Although the availibility of tapes and videos in the self-access center may be popular, the results also indicate that providing self-access materials alone is not enough. Self-access material without some explicit personal or academic relevance or direct link to their own lives is of limited value to the learners (Gardiner & Miller, 1994).

In the future, students themselves could contribute to the materials development. The process can be initiated in the classroom by introducing projects that would encourage students to save and repackage their work and create new texts to be used in the self-access center. This would form a kind of archive, a record of what students have done both in and out the classroom.

Videos

The videos are arranged in clearly marked, color-coded boxes, generally with between two and four cassettes and an accompanying textbook in each box. In addition to these videos, there is also a growing movie collection. The current movie inventory has been largely selected by teachers with the interests of students in mind. Most movies do not have any subtitles and are

therefore considered to be more advanced material. To help students interact with the movies, a standardized worksheet with general questions and space for reflective writing has been designed and made available.

All self-access videos and movies have strong potential for direct classroom application; they thus provide a valuable link between the classroom and the center. A further benefit is that some of the self-access videos have an accompanying text, often with several additional copies; this increases the potential for students to work in groups. In this way, study options at the Self-Access Center have been expanded to include both group collaboration and individual study.

Reading

In a radical departure from a typical language laboratory, reading has been added to the range of materials in the Self-Access Center. This is because reading practice lends itself to the self-access format. To help students develop their reading skills, reading has been divided into Intensive and Extensive Reading, and reading materials in the Self-Access Center have been color-coded.

Intensive reading.

The core of the intensive reading program is the Scientific Research Associates (SRA) Reading Laboratory. Although these materials are intended for L1 readers, we decided to use them because the passages are graded and focus on a variety of reading skills such as those of comprehension and vocabulary building. The SRA materials allow students to check their own work and note their progress, which fits in with our desire to encourage students to become more responsible for their own learning.

At the beginning of the year, all students are given a reading placement test. On the basis of these test results, students are divided into five reading levels, which are also color-coded. Students are expected to move up to higher levels so that their reading skills are constantly challenged and developed. However, since some of the passages are difficult, students are reluctant to do so. Another problem lies in persuading students to pace their reading so that they develop the habit of reading regularly and avoid completing their reading just before a deadline.

For many students, reading, especially doing the SRA exercises, does not prove to be popular initially (Allen, 1997). However, as they have become more accustomed to the work, some students have realized that such work is useful, although they may not necessarily like it. This was particularly illustrated by the decision of many second-year students to include SRA exercises when they were given the opportunity to set their own work and target levels for the Self-Access Center.

Extensive reading.

Graded readers

For Extensive Reading, graded readers were purchased from a variety of publishers. Assuming that students graduate from high school with an English vocabulary level of 1500 words, we concentrated on the lower to middle levels from 400 to 1000 headwords. Students are free to sign out these books, which are color-coded for difficulty. Similar to the video worksheets, reading report worksheets are available in the Center for students to complete, so as to encourage them to reflect on their reading.

As a result of student comments about reading difficulties, more graded readers between the 200 and 400 word levels have been purchased. However, the number of books available for young adults at these levels is limited and this is an area where we hope publishers will expand their lists.

Magazines

To promote reading and to expose students to new ideas about English-speaking countries, there are subscriptions to a variety of English magazines, including ones from Britain, the United States, South Africa, and other countries. Although the reading level

of these magazines is much more difficult than that of the graded readers, the topical nature of many of the articles as well as features such as headlines, bold print, and photographs, assist students to understand the content. The magazines have proved to be very popular with the students. In addition, there is no word limit for what is considered an article, so that in the work target levels that students need to complete, an article has an equivalent value to a graded reader. The reading report worksheet can be used for both magazine articles and graded readers.

Language arts materials

An area currently being explored is that of language arts materials development. These activities include grammar, vocabulary building, and word association tasks, as well as those tasks that help students learn metalanguage used to describe the English language and its functional uses. Through these reading and writing exercises, students review and refine their knowledge of grammar, practice error correction, and use problem-solving strategies. The need for such activities was expressed by both teachers and students. There is limited time in class to address individual students' mistakes. Furthermore, students have indicated in interviews that they would like to spend more time on grammar.

The series *Grammar Dimensions* was chosen as the basis for the grammar exercises because it emphasizes the communicative aspect of grammar and uses grammar explanations, diagrams and illustrations that are consistently labeled. Although the students were at a higher level, the lowest level book in the series (Badalamenti & Henner-Stanchina, 1993) was used so that the explanations and directions would not intimidate the students. Based on teachers' assessments of student weaknesses, sets of exercises containing one or two grammar explanations and related tasks were prepared. Each set of exercises is laminated and kept in its own separate plastic ziplock bag for easy access. An answer key is provided in a separate booklet for every unit.

Other language arts exercises are those of problem solving, word derivation, and vocabulary building taken from the *Heinemann Games Series Word Games with English* (Howard-Williams & Herd, 1994) and *English Puzzles* (Case, 1994). These books contain one-page photocopiable exercises that offer an alternative format for practising English. Selected exercises were made into worksheets, and answer keys were provided. The overall reaction to both types of worksheets was that they were interesting and fun. Many students also said these exercises were easy, which may have lead directly to their popularity.

Based on the feedback received from students, the first priority is to expand the basic set of exercises and try to make them more level-specific. Student and teacher perceptions of needs will be evaluated further and incorporated into the next round of materials development.

Adjusting to self-access learning

From the beginning of the school year, it takes approximately three weeks to complete an orientation in the five broad categories of materials that the Self-Access Center at Kyushu Lutheran College provides. It takes approximately six weeks, according to teacher journals, into the semester for students to feel comfortable using the Center. In responses to a survey about the orientation, most students indicated that they were satisfied. Only a very small minority asked for detailed instructions in Japanese. Initially, at the beginning of the year, requests for teacher assistance are frequent, but these lessen as the students adjust to working in the Center.

Twice a semester, teachers meet with each student to make any necessary recommendations about their progress. Most of the recommendations involve encouraging students to use more challenging material. During the second semester, there is less consultation with the

teacher. By the third semester, little teacher involvement is needed. On the surface, therefore, it seems that learner autonomy has taken root.

When asked how they perceived self-access learning, most students responded favorably. However, this was a negative reaction from the second-year students who did not have a special class period for self-access work. Unlike the first-year students, they were expected to fulfill the minimum targets for self-access work in their own free time. To overcome this burden, during the fourth semester, the sophomores were free to follow teacher-set minimum targets or create their own, provided they gave a reason for their choice. Most of these students went along with the original teacher-initiated targets as they felt these provided a balance of skills. So far, the results have been very encouraging.

The other personally designed targets revealed more of the students' weaknesses than their likes. It seems that students are seriously reflecting on their needs, and in most cases increasing their targets. This appears to match what MacIntyre and Noels (1996) have found regarding the relationships between attitude motivation and learning strategy choice. They contend that a strategy is not adopted unless it is seen as useful and easy to use. This seems to be the case with the sophomore students. Many of these students reacted negatively to required self-access work in their free time, but when they were asked to suggest their own targets, they did so in a positive manner. This may be a sign of growing learner autonomy.

Conclusion

When describing learning autonomy, Littlewood (1996) asserts that learners need to have the motivation and the confidence to be willing to make and carry out learning choices. At the same time, learners must also have the necessary knowledge and skills for such decision-making and action. We believe that a self-access center provides the context for students to develop this kind of learner autonomy. Although our findings are preliminary, they do suggest that taking part in a self-access center does promote learner autonomy.

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East Meets West—Approaches to Learner Autonomy

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I report on a survey of Japanese and Western English teachers in Japan. The teachers were asked about their views and beliefs on language teacher and student roles and on their encouragement of learner autonomy. They were also asked to evaluate the use of specific language learning strategies by Japanese learners. Results indicated that the Japanese teachers expressed more concern for the development of a comfortable interpersonal relationship between students and teachers, while Western teachers focussed on the academic aspects of their teaching. Both groups reported teaching some language learning strategies, with Japanese teachers reporting a lower number of strategies taught, and less explicit methods of teaching strategies. Neither group wholeheartedly promoted self-monitoring or self-evaluation. Thanks to their experience in an immersion language learning situation, Western teachers seemed to have more confidence in applying and explicitly encouraging students to use a wide variety of strategies.

本稿は日本人と日本在住の欧米人の英語教師を対象として実施した調査について報告する。調査は言語教師と生徒の役割，及び学習者の自律性の育成に関する見解と信念についてであった。さらに，日本人英語学習者特有の学習方略の使用状況に関する調査も行われた。結果は，日本人教師は学生とのより良い人間関係を築くことを気にかける傾向があることを示し，一方，欧米人教師は授業内容の学術面に注目している傾向があることを示した。両者とも何らかの言語学習方略を指導していると報告しているが，日本人教師のほうが方略の種類も多くはなく，明確な指導法の採用も少ないという結果であった。また，両者ともセルフ・モニタリングや自己評価を熱心に授業に取り入れているというわけではなかった。集中的な言語学習の経験から，欧米人教師のほうが自信を持って，さまざまな方略を授業に応用し，その使用を学生に積極的に奨励しているようであった。

This paper is a report on a survey of teachers in Japan on the ways that Japanese and Western teachers foster learner autonomy. I address the role of language learning strategies (LLS) as tools for independent learning in an environment where such learning is necessary for a satisfactory level of progress. Anna Uhl Chamot and I planned and conducted the survey as a means of clarifying issues related to our work in teacher development within Japan. We had both led seminars on LLS instruction and wanted to know more about the beliefs and practices of teachers who had studied in that field.

The frequency of using LLS has been shown to be positively related to learners' self-efficacy, a construct used to measure the confidence that a learner has in approaching language learning tasks (Chamot, Robbins, & El-Dinary, 1993). Instruction in LLS leads to more frequent strategy use and to a more structured approach to language tasks (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary, Carbonaro, & Robbins, 1993). This survey was begun with the intent of describing and comparing the beliefs of teachers from two educational and cultural systems, Japanese and Western, about learner autonomy and practices related to instruction in LLS.

Procedures

The survey (see Appendix A) consisted of 14 structured interviews, conducted during 1997 and 1998. The questions were divided into four areas, which will be reported in brief below.

Part A: Background information
The teachers interviewed were seven Japanese and seven Western EFL teachers who work in Japan. The teachers taught at all levels from pre-school to adult. Their teaching experience ranged from 4 years to 22 years and on the average they had taught for 14 years.

Part B: The teacher's role
The answers to item 12, "Describe some things a good language teacher should do" revealed that Japanese teachers (JTs) focused more on the interpersonal aspects of teaching. They valued having a good relationship with their students and through that activating the students to learn. They also wanted to promote a strong motivation. They said teachers should have a friendly character, and that they should encourage students to study on their own. In the academic area, JTs felt that continuing to study a language after becoming a teacher is important for staying in touch with the problems of their students.

> JT-A: "We should be very sensitive to what students think when we stimulate. It's very important to keep their motivations."
> JT-B: [A good language teacher should] "Motivate students so they will want to study more; have good English proficiency & a very friendly character and attitude toward students."

Western teachers (WTs), in compari-son, focused on academic aspects of the relationship between themselves and their students. They said it was important to provide students with comprehensible input and opportunities for interaction in the target language. WTs believe that teachers should keep up with the latest developments in the field and know the students' needs and the course's place in the curriculum.

> WT: "They [good teachers] know their students' level and objectives and so on. They have to know the practical literature...I continue to learn from the practical literature, and I think a teacher should be aware of that and constantly be going to conferences, you know, getting new ideas. To understand the curriculum. We don't just teach a course, we're teaching a language within an institution, and what we do has to fit in, if only because we might be wasting the students' time if we're doing something they might be getting somewhere else. Knowing the subject for the content-type courses."

In the interpersonal area, Western teachers said that it is important for teachers to understand the students and how they want to learn, and to encourage students.

> WT: "Understand what students want to learn and how they want to learn. Even if you don't agree with it, I think it's important to find some kind of middle ground rather than impose what you think about language teaching. It's important for teachers to be very clear about their goals and what kind of activity they're doing. To be clear about instructions for anything that they do."

Part C: Student role (describe some of the things a good language student should do)
When asked to describe things a good language student should do, WTs responded with a larger number of personally oriented behaviors than did JTs. Both JTs and WTs defined a good student as one who seeks out and takes advantage of practice opportunities outside the classroom. Table 1 shows the specific behaviors described by the teachers.

Part D: Language learning strategies (LLS)
Teachers looked at a list of strategies with definitions (see Appendix B) to aid in their recall of language learning strategies.

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When answering items in this part of the survey, some teachers mentioned strategies that were not on the list, such as Pattern practice, Shadowing (Expanding Repetition), Keeping learner diaries, Increasing practice opportunities, and Using the internet as a communica-tion motivator.

Do your students use any of these LLS?
The lists below include only LLS that more than two teachers mentioned in answering this item. JTs, who named ten LLS in all, believed that their students used Cooperation and Using resources, Imagery, Note-taking, and Prediction.

WTs, who named 16 LLS, believed that students use Cooperation, Planning, Using/Making rules, Using resources, Monitoring, Note-taking, Summarizing, Self-assessment, and Questioning for Clarification. There seems to be a differing perception of the LLS used by students, which may also be a factor of the levels and age groups taught, or in experience in identifying LLS used for particular activities.

Table 1
Description of things a good language student should do

Western Teachers		*Japanese Teachers*	
Personal	***Academic***	***Personal***	***Academic***
Reduce pressure from outside forces	Listen as often as possible	Keep their motivation	Work hard, study longer than other students
Try to find things that motivate them	Devote time to studying	Try to enjoy themselves	Expose themselves to a lot of English
Recognize the need to put in time	Make a basic effort to communicate	Think of purpose for studying L2	Seek out practice opportunities (2x)
Be willing to try something new and take risks	Read extensively		Keep studying, both inside and outside the classroom
Do things they can enjoy	Take advantage of opportunities to read, write, hear, and speak the L2		Expose themselves to a lot of English
Have a high tolerance for ambiguity, have independence and confidence	Have a high variety of input, connect it, and study on their own		

Do you teach your students to use any of these LLS?
Table 2 details the LLS taught by the interviewees. Most of them taught some LLS; for example, four WTs and three JTs said they teach Prediction. Some LLS were taught exclusively by the WTs: notably, Questioning for Clarification, and Substitution. These may be skills that come easier to native speakers of a language.

JTs expressed the need to have had personal experience in using a LLS before teaching it:

> *Interviewer: "So you feel that you can't teach a strategy if you wouldn't use it yourself?"*
> JT: "Actually, it's impossible, I think. Students look at the teacher's face, and if I don't use that strategy or I don't like a certain strategy, I cannot have the confidence to teach or recommend to use such kind of strategy. As for the Imagery, I'm not personally using the strategy so I cannot recommend it to students. I can't realize what's the good point of using Imagery. Even if I look at the documentation I cannot explain in my words."

Table 2
Language learning strategies taught

LLS taught by Western Teachers	LLS taught by Japanese Teachers
4 Predicting	3 Predicting
3 Making Inferences	2 Activating Prior Knowledge
3 Note-taking	2 Make Inferences
3 Questioning for Clarification	2 Using Resources
3 Summarizing	1 Classification
3 Activating Prior Knowledge	1 Cooperation
2 Using Resources	1 Imagery
1 Classification	1 Increase their opportunities to use English
1 Cooperation	1 Learning from Context. (Contextualization)
1 Imagery	1 Selective attention
1 Planning	1 Spiral Learning - reviewing
1 Selective Attention	1 Summarizing
1 Substitution	(12)
(13)	

n= 7 WTs; 7 JTs

How long have you been teaching LLS/learner autonomy?
In answer to item 18, regarding the length of time the teacher had taught about LLS or encouraged learner autonomy, the WTs averaged 5 years of teaching the topic, and JTs averaged 2 years. The answers given to items 19-24 on the introduction of this topic, evaluation and monitoring of strategies use, revealed that about half of each group of teachers explicitly discuss learner autonomy. Those who do may introduce the topic through use of a strategies questionnaire, or an expression, such as "Give a man a fish, and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish, and you'll feed him for a lifetime." Some teachers tell stories of successful students or of their own language learning experiences to serve as positive role models for their students. Five of seven in each group of teachers said they encourage students to become strategic learners through structuring tasks that require LLS; by asking students for feedback on how they completed a task; pointing out successful strategy use by classmates, and by modeling solutions to problems.

> JT: "I didn't teach [autonomy] explicitly, just let the students look back on what kind of strategies they are using, using the questionnaires,... But unfor-
> tunately, their strategies are very simple, just repeat, so we did not find so many very interesting

strategies. . .so I just introduced the new strategies for them. . ."

A difference appeared between the two groups when asked how they encourage students to monitor their progress or evaluate their own work. On the whole, JTs did not report any efforts to encourage monitoring or self-assessment among students. Although they subscribed to the principle of self-assessment, WTs expressed difficulty with implementing this concept. Com-pletion of the task is seen by students as the endpoint of their involvement; from then on it is assumed that the teacher will evaluate the quality of the work, not the students. This may reflect on the traditional educational pattern of a teacher-fronted classroom in Japan, and the expectations of students that they do not have the ability to judge their own efforts.

Overall evaluation of strategies

The answers to items 17, LLS taught and 26, LLS deemed useful, were combined to find out the teacher's overall evaluation of LLS. Using these combined scores, three strategies were evaluated in the same way by both groups of teachers: Predicting (mentioned five times by each group), Making Inferences (mentioned five times), and Monitoring (mentioned twice). This may be because the first two LLS are often found in textbook activities, and they help in completing listening tasks, which, in the author's experience, is a difficult area for Japanese students.

What LLS do you think are most useful to your students?

Table 3 shows how WTs and JTs evaluated the usefulness of LLS. Only those LLS which were mentioned by two or more teachers are included. As was also evident in Table 2, a higher number of LLS were mentioned by WTs. In Table 3, several more LLS were exclusively named by WTs: Cooperation, Planning, Questioning for Clarification, Self-Assessment, Substitution, and Using Resources.

The most surprising comments in were evaluations of two LLS: Imagery and Cooperation. There was a distinct difference in perceptions on the part of the two groups when Cooperation was discussed; WTs were more positive than JTs:

WT-A: "Cooperation—Yes, **students are very good at it and think it's a good thing to do.**"
WT-B: "And cooperation, too, because if you're in a foreign culture you're usually not alone, most Japanese travel in a group, so they can look at the route map and ask their questions, and if one doesn't understand they can clarify in L1. **I think cooperation is very important.**"
WT-C: "Cooperation is something **we use in class all the time.**"
JT-A: "As for cooperation, **many Japanese male students do not like this strategy.** But female students seem to like to help each other. But male students do not like such situations."
JT-B: "One more thing, cooperation—**most of my students HATE to cooperate with other students.** Just to do cooperative work with their favorite students, is okay, but if I make the pair or group very mechanically, they hate and they cannot do this kind of cooperative group work. So for that I have to make some kind of **party or activities to make the students know each other.**"

Table 3
Most and least useful language learning strategies

Most Useful Language Learning Strategies	
Western Teachers	Japanese Teachers
4 Planning	3 Activating prior knowledge
4 Using resources	3 Making inferences
3 Cooperation	2 Imagery
3 Making inferences	2 Monitoring
2 Activating Prior Knowledge	2 Predicting
2 Monitoring	2 Selective Attention
2 Questioning for Clarification	
2 Self-assessment	
2 Substitution	
Least Useful Language Learning Strategies	
Western Teachers	Japanese Teachers
2 Note-Taking	2 Self-Assessment
2 Using/Making Rules	2 Imagery

n= 7 WTs, 7 JTs

What LLS are not useful to your students?
Most teachers responded that they felt all LLS were useful at one time or another, so a relatively small number were selected in answer to this item, as seen at the bottom of Table 3. My preconceptions about the use of Imagery, however, were shattered when I heard these comments:

> JT: "Imagery. Not good for Japanese students especially. I often think that (various) taxonomies—all of them have this kind of Imagery strategy. I do not understand why they include Imagery... as a Japanese I **study English for about 15 years, I have never used Imagery strategy**. And many students I talked with do not understand why they use this strategy here in the list...And also, we have not been instructed to use image in learning, in junior high school."
> *Interviewer: "How about Kanji?" [I thought Imagery was useful for learning Kanji.]*
> JT: "Well, many people from overseas think that Kanji is an image, but we do not think so. We just think, 'this is a character.' Just a letter... It's just a letter, it's not an image. Many scholars believe it's processed in the right hemisphere of the brain—who cares?"

How are LLS taught?
There are basically two ways in which LLS can be taught: *explicit* and *embedded* (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994). The explicit method is one in which LLS are identified and discussed openly; students are told when and why to use them; and, reflection on their effectiveness is encouraged. The embedded method is one in which LLS are encouraged indirectly; built into activities but not identified, nor is reflection on their effectiveness encouraged. Explicit instruction in LLS leads to greater control by the student over the use of LLS and makes it easier to *transfer* LLS learned for a particular task to another, similar task (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994).

WTs preferred the explicit method, with five of the seven teachers reporting that they talked openly about LLS. The problems they reported with teaching LLS included: the language barrier, meta-talk on task (taking up too much time to talk about how to do the task) and making students realize they use similar strategies in L1.

JTs also reported using the explicit

method with four of seven using it. They reported problems connected with a change in the teacher's style:

> JT: "When I began to teach strategies, my teaching style changed . . . . And many of them responded positively, **but some students were confused** . . . . Since I started strategy training, some students said, **there are more interactions between teacher and the students**. The students noticed it."

Commenting on the choice of an embedded method of LLS instruction, one JT revealed that he purposefully conceals his intent:

> JT: [I use] "kind of a blind teaching method. I do not say strategies are very important or effective, **try to camouflage everything**. **Tasks or in a small talk.** If I say, 'this strategy is an important strategy or so on, try to remember,' students do not like such kind of approach."
> *Interviewer: "Is that too direct?"*
> JT: "I tried to make them study these strategies intentionally, **but the results were very dismal**."
> *Interviewer: "Are you talking about the research you did [a few years before]?"*
> JT: "Um-hum. They did not like such approach, so I tried to camouflage some of the strategies in the tasks, and tried to **drop some strategies in my casual conversations** with students."

Discussion

One of the differences that defines the past experience of most Western teachers living in Japan is that they have lived in an immersion language learning environment; they have faced the daily struggle to make sense of a foreign language being spoken by native speakers and to decode writing in a totally new alphabet. This has provided a strategic learning experience that may afford WTs with more confidence in teaching a variety of LLS and to be more explicit in their teaching.

From the answers given, it seems that Japanese teachers and students share a deeper understanding of the challenges English learners face in Japan, and the support necessary from teachers. Student reactions to strategies use and training seems to be perceived very differently by JTs and WTs; better communication between them may help in resolving misunderstandings from both sides. In an ideal situation, both Japanese and Western teachers will work together with Japanese students to create an autonomous learning environment based on mutual understanding, responsibility, and trust.

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Appendix A
Survey questions

Parts	Questions
Part A - Background Information	1. Name 2. Native Language 3. Language Taught 4. Grade/age level 5. Type of class 6. Length of Teaching Career
Part B - Teacher Role	7. Describe some things a good language teacher should do 8. Can a teacher do anything for students who are not motivated to learn? 9. What can/should a teacher do if a student is trying very hard but is still doing poorly in class? 10. Can a teacher do anything for students who believe that they have little ability to learn a language? 11. Do you believe that all students can learn another language? Why/why not?
Part C - Student Role	12. Describe some of the things a good language student should do. 13. If a student is not very motivated is there anything he/she can do to improve motivation? 14. If a student is trying very hard, but is still doing poorly in class, is there anything that he/she can do to improve? 15. If a student believes that he/she has little ability to learn a language is there anything he/she can do to change this belief?
Part D - Language Learning Strategies (LLS) Participants were shown the list of LLS seen in Appendix B and asked these questions:	16. Do you know if any of your students use any of these LLS (or others) on their own? Explain. 17. Do you teach your students to use any of these LLS (or others)? How? 18. How long have you been teaching LLS/learner autonomy? 19. When you have a new class, at what point do you introduce the concept of LLS/learner autonomy? 20. How you introduce the topic of LLS/learner autonomy? 21. How do you encourage your students to practice strategic learning? 22. While your students are doing a language task, how do you encourage them to monitor their progress? 23. When students complete a task, how do they evaluate their work? 24. How do your students evaluate their use of LLS? 25. How do you or your students evaluate their development of independent learning? 26. What LLS do you think are most useful to your students? 27. What LLS do you think are NOT useful for your students? 28. What has been the most difficult aspect of teaching LLS for you? 29. If you had the power to make any change you wanted to, how would you improve the language learning process at your school?

Appendix B
List of language learning strategies used for the survey

Strategy name	Description
Planning	Setting a learning goal, planning how to carry our an activity such as a project or a dramatization; planning how to write a story or solve a problem; previewing a reading text to get the main idea.
Monitoring	Being aware of how well a task is going, how well you are understanding while listening or reading, how well you are being understood when speaking, or how well you are expressing your ideas when speaking or writing.
Self-assessment	After completing a task, judging how well you did, whether you reached your goal, and how effective your learning strategies or problem-solving procedures were.
Selective attention	Focusing on specific aspects of a task, such as locating patterns in a story, identifying key words or ideas, listening or scanning a text for particular information
Activating Prior Knowledge	Using your background knowledge to understand and learn something new. brainstorming relevant words and ideas, making associations and analogies; writing or telling what you know.
Predicting	Using parts of a text (such as illustrations, titles, headings, organization) or a real life situation and your own background knowledge to anticipate what information or event is likely to occur next.
Making Inferences	Using the context of an oral or written text and your own background knowledge to guess at meanings of unfamiliar words or ideas.
Imagery	Using mental or real pictures or other visual cues to understand or remember information, or to solve a problem.
Classification	Grouping words, concepts, physical objects, numbers, or quantities according to their attributes; constructing graphic organizers to show a classification.
Summarizing	Making a mental, oral, or written summary of something you listened to or read; retelling a story or other text in your own words
Note-taking	Writing down key information in verbal, graphic, or numerical form, often as concept maps, spider maps, T-lists, time lines, or other types of graphic organizers
Substitution	Using a synonym, paraphrase, or circumlocution when you want to express an idea and have difficulty in finding the exact word(s) you need.
Using/Making Rules	Applying a rule (phonics, decoding, grammar, other linguistic, mathematical, scientific, or other) to understand a text or complete a task; figuring out rules or patterns from examples.
Using Resources	Using reference materials (books, dictionaries, encyclopedias, videos, exhibitions, performances, computer programs and databases, the Internet) to find information or complete a task.
Cooperation	Working with classmates to complete a task or project, demonstrate a process or product, share knowledge, solve problems, give and receive feedback, and develop social skills.
Questioning for Clarification	Negotiating meaning by asking for clarification, explanation, confirmation, rephrasing, or examples.

Adapted from: Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990)

Measuring Writing Apprehension in Japan

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Writing Apprehension has been given considerable attention in L1 research, but remains to be examined extensively in L2 writing research. Daly and Miller (1975) have created and validated a questionnaire measuring writing apprehension in L1, but such a measure does not yet exist in L2. A validated measure of writing apprehension for L2 would benefit students and teachers alike by identifying hindrances to academic success, and providing a basis by which to develop teaching methodologies which would lower apprehension. In this paper, we describe a process to validate a translated Daly-Miller questionnaire for Japanese students of English. We found four factors and significant correlations between Writing Apprehension and the TOEFL Test of Written English scores, and between Writing Apprehension and High School Writing Experience. Finally, we present our future research plans using the questionnaire.

第二言語を用いての作文に対する不安の研究は第一言語に於けるほどには行われてはいない。第一言語の作文不安に関しては，Daly と Miller が作成し妥当性を証明したアンケート (1975) があるが，第二言語に関してはこのようなものはまだ作成されていない。第二言語における作文不安を測る妥当な方法の開発は，学生にとっては学業面での成果が期待でき，また教師にとっては作文不安を低下させる方法を見つけ得るという点で，双方に有益である。本論は英語専攻の日本人大学生のための作文不安に関するアンケート（日本語訳）の妥当性を証明する。本研究における４点の要因，TOEFL の作文テストの得点との相関，加えて高等学校での作文の体験との相関を論ずる。最後にアンケートを用いての今後の研究計画を述べる。

Introduction

There is an emphasis placed on writing at our junior college in Osaka. In their first-year English composition classes, students learn to write paragraphs and short essays using six rhetorical patterns; then in their second year they write 7-10 page documented research papers in content-based "Topic Studies" classes. Second-year students write a total of four papers over the year and must receive a passing score on each paper in order to graduate. However, students sometimes have trouble making the transition from short essays to longer, documented research papers. (Cornwell & McKay, 1998) As liaisons of one of the content-based courses and the composition course, respectively, we are strongly interested in the affective variables which may help or hinder students successful transition to academic papers. Our interest in the topic of this paper, measuring writing apprehension, first arose out of research we were conducting on how to make a bridge between first-year composition classes and the second-year academic paper classes.

In a review of literature, writing apprehension appeared as an area of considerable research in L1 (Beatty & Payne, 1985; Book, 1976; Buley-Meissner, 1989; Daly, 1985; Daly, & Miller, 1975; Frankinburger, 1991; Hollandsworth, 1988) but one of little research in L2 and virtually none in EFL settings. One L1 study that often appears as a source for other studies on writing apprehension is Daly and Miller's, "The empirical development of an instrument to measure writing apprehension" (1975). Some language educators feel that teachers intuitively know that writing apprehension exists and that there is no need to measure it empirically (Blanton, 1987); however, we feel that a valid measurement of writing apprehension in L2 may be of help to teachers and

researchers. A valid measurement of writing apprehension could identify "at risk" writers, predict academic success, and present benchmarks to measure treatments designed to lower writing apprehension.

We describe the first steps in replicating the Daly-Miller study in an attempt to validate the Daly-Miller questionnaire for Japanese students of English. It consists of four parts. First, the original Daly-Miller study is briefly described. Next, the process of developing and administering the translated questionnaire is presented along with descriptive statistics. Then, the four factors which were found, and the correlations between Writing Apprehension and TOEFL Test of Written English scores, and Writing Apprehension and High School Writing Experience, are discussed. Finally, we will list future research that can be done using the questionnaire.

Original Daly and Miller questionnaire

Daly and Miller (1975) designed a 26-item questionnaire to measure writing apprehension, taking the following steps to show that it was both a valid and reliable instrument. After looking at then current measurements of communication apprehension/speaking apprehension/receiver apprehension (Heston & Paterline, 1974; McCroskey, 1970; Wheeles, 1974), Daly and Miller developed a 63-item, Likert-type scale (five possible responses) questionnaire and administered it to 164 undergraduate composition and interpersonal communication students. The results were submitted to principle components factor analysis with orthogonal rotation. A one-factor solution was generated and after dropping items that did not load above .57 and rerunning the factor analysis, they selected 26 items, all of which loaded above .60, and accounted for .46 of the variance. Next, the reliability of the instrument was tested by both split half and test-retest methods. The split half reliability was reported at .940, while the test-retest reliability over a week was reported at .923. Scores can range from a low of 26 to a high of 130. Daly and Miller's sample had a mean score of 79.28 with a standard deviation of 18.86.

Replicating the study

There have only been a few attempts to measure writing apprehension in L2, all of which have used modified versions of the Daly-Miller instrument (Gungle & Taylor, 1989; Masny & Foxall, 1992; Phillips, 1989). However, none of them has translated the instrument into the students' L1, nor have they reported on attempts to validate the instrument with their subjects—L2 students.

As a first step in replicating the Daly Miller study, we had a Japanese colleague translate the questionnaire and instructions into Japanese (see Appendix 1). In doing so we had to change some questions. For example, question number two, "I have no fear of my writing being evaluated," if translated directly into Japanese would consistently cause students to answer "incorrectly." We also added the phrase "in English" to make it clear that we were talking about writing in English, not Japanese. Finally, we added three questions about students' writing experience at the sentence, paragraph, and essay level while in high school. We also asked if any students studied abroad and if so for how long.

After compiling the questionnaire, we administered it to 736 students at the school including all composition students (primarily first year) and all Topic Studies I students (second year and above). Forty-nine students did not complete the entire questionnaire and are not included in the total count in Table 1. We asked teachers to administer the questionnaire as close to the beginning of the semester as possible as we did not want students to become more apprehensive after learning what the writing requirements of their respective classes were.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Err	Count	Min.	Max.
All	80.221	13.008	.496	687	38	121
1st yr	80.816	12.138	.646	353	40	118
2nd yr	79.786	13.996	.779	323	38	121

Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for all students who completed the questionnaire. The statistics are broken down by all students, first-year students, and second-year students. The distribution for both years was a normal bell curve. Eleven students did not indicate whether they were first-year or second-year students; this accounts for the discrepancy between all (N = 687), first-year (n = 353), and second-year (n = 323).

In addition to these statistics, over 75% of the first-year students reported little or no writing experience beyond the sentence level while in high school. Fifty of the students studied abroad for at least one year.

Brown (1988) reports three common methods to report reliability: test-retest, equivalent forms, and internal consistency reliabilities. Because of the large number of students, we initially didn't want to administer the test twice (test-retest); instead we intended to show the questionnaire's internal consistency through a split half reliability test. "Internal consistency reliability can be estimated in a number of ways, but the easiest method to understand conceptually is the split half method...[it has] the distinct advantage of being estimable from a single form of a test administered only once..." (Brown, 1988, p. 99). Therefore, to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire the split-half method was used following the description in Hatch and Lazaraton (1991). A correlation of .78 was obtained for the half test and using Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, the reliability of the fill questionnaire was found to be .8876 (N=701, M = 80.08, and SD = 12.81). In Daly and Miller's study the mean score was 79.28 with a standard deviation of 18.86.

Factors and correlations

Since this study was concerned with validating an existing L1 questionnaire in Japanese, we were primarily interested in construct validity, which we examined through factor analysis. We found four factors. Ten items loaded on the first factor, labeled Negative Perceptions about Writing Ability. This factor appears to tap students' perception of their ability when writing and to successfully complete work in a writing class. The second factor included six items and was labeled Enjoyment of Writing. The third factor consisted of four items and was labeled Fear of Evaluation. There were six items included in factor four, which was labeled Showing My Writing to Others. Appendix 2 shows the questionnaire items sorted by factors.

High school writing experience was examined by dividing students into two groups: those deemed to have little high school writing experience (n = 91) and those deemed to have a lot of high school writing experience (n = 102). Group membership was determined by those falling one standard deviation above or below the mean. An ANOVA showed significant differences between the groups: F (1, 191) = 33.65, p < .000.

The relationship between Writing Apprehension and the TWE was compared by dividing second year students into groups according to Writing Apprehension. Once again, group membership was determined by those falling one standard deviation above and below the mean. An ANOVA showed that the TWE scores for High Apprehensives and Low Apprehensives were significantly different F (1, 63) = 8.6678 p < .0045.

Two significant correlations that are of interest to this study are those between high school writing experience and Writing

Apprehension, and the Test of English as a Foreign Language's (TOEFL) Test of Written English (TWE). High School Writing Experience and Writing Apprehension were negatively correlated at -.2578, indicating that students with less experience in writing in high school are more apprehensive. The TWE and low and high Writing Apprehension also were negatively correlated. Their correlation was -.3478.

Conclusion

This study has taken the first steps in validating a measurement for Japanese students of English, and it has done so in the students' L1, Japanese. The following are future questions that could be examined using the questionnaire.

1. Is there any correlation between their performance on an in-house placement test and writing apprehension?
2. Do students who take elective courses that require large amounts of writing have higher or lower levels of apprehension?
3. Is it possible to create a treatment to help high apprehensive students lower their apprehension level?

Studies in L1 have shown that writing apprehension is negatively correlated with success in writing (Frankinburger, 1991), so we hope that this measurement will be able to identify students that may be at risk of doing poorly in writing. By designing and administering a treatment to lower students' apprehension, we may be able to help them become more successful than they would be without any help. This instrument will help us measure any effect of such a treatment.

Acknowledgement

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Appendix 1

Writing apprehension questionnaire in Japanese

Note: SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; U=Uncertain; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree

Questions arranged according to factors with percentages of answers

	SA	A	U	D	SD
Factor One: Negative Perceptions about Writing Ability					
26. I'm no good at writing.	21.0	42.0	19.5	16.0	1.6
24. I don't think I write as well as most other people.	18.3	45.3	24.1	11.1	1.3
11. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing.	.6	5.0	25.8	42.3	26.1
22. When I hand in a composition I know I'm going to do poorly.	7.0	20.0	38.1	30.5	4.4
16. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas.	15.0	37.5	20.3	24.0	3.3
21. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in a composition course.	19.5	46.1	18.5	14.8	1.0
7. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition.	4.6	19.3	14.7	49.8	11.7
23. It's easy for my to write good compositions.	.3	2.9	8.4	52.5	35.9
18. I expect to do poorly in composition classes even before I enter them.	7.7	25.2	40.6	21.3	5.1
13. I'm nervous about writing.	11.8	35.1	19.6	27.4	6.1

Factor Two: Enjoyment of Writing

15. I enjoy writing.
    8.1 41.9 31.1 15.8 3.0
17. Writing is a lot of fun.
    7.0 32.4 32.1 25.8 2.7
3. I look forward to writing down my ideas.
    7.7 26.1 29.5 30.7 6.0
10. I like to write my ideas down.
    5.7 25.7 34.7 30.7 3.3
1. I avoid writing.
    2.6 22.3 15.7 48.8 10.7
8. Expressing ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time.
    .4 .9 4.1 40.2 54.4

Factor Three: Fear of Evaluation

4. I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated.
    11.1 27.2 13.9 36.4 11.4
25. I don't like my compositions to be evaluated.
    8.3 17.8 18.1 43.5 12.3
2. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.
    10.3 27.0 10.7 37.7 14.4
5. Taking a composition course is a very frightening experience.
    2.0 6.1 11.6 46.9 33.4

Factor Four: Showing My Writing to Others

12. I like to have my friends read what I have written.
    2.6 14.6 24.4 45.0 13.6
20. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience.
    6.1 30.0 35.8 24.1 4.0
19. I like seeing my thoughts on paper.
    6.4 32.2 40.4 17.7 3.3
14. People seem to enjoy what I write.
    .6 3.4 49.6 31.6 15.1
9. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication.
    1.0 7.6 35.9 37.8 17.7
6. Handing in a composition makes me feel good.
    5.8 24.3 29.8 34.4 5.7

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The 3D Effect: Combining Course and Self-Assessment

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Traditionally, teacher and course evaluations designed by administrations and even by teachers themselves have followed the form of a checklist, questionnaire, or Likert-scale which focuses student attention on one part of the course at a time. This non-integrated atomization of the course can be seen as a denial of our awareness that a course is, in fact, an organic whole rather than a finely tuned machine, and that it relies more on the effects of the interaction between its parts than on any one part itself. In this article, we look at results of an experiment to design a course evaluation form that would give a more rounded view of the course and acknowledge its interactive nature.

伝統的に，学校側または教師自身による，教師・コース（修了過程）の評価は，適宜焦点を絞った典型的なチェックリストやアンケート，Likert-scaleに依存してきた。コースとは，実際にはパーツごとに調整された精密機械というよりは全体的な構造を持つ有機体であって，それぞれの部分同士が与える相互作用の結果に依存している。よって，この様なコース自体の細分化はその全体的な構造に対する否定と見ることができる。本稿は，コースのもつ相互作用の働きに総合的な視点と認識が得られる評価形式の作成を試みた結果について考察する。

Introduction

Traditionally, teacher and course evaluations designed by administrations and even by teachers themselves have followed the form of a checklist, questionnaire, or Likert-scale which focuses student attention on one part of the course at a time. This non-integrated atomization of the course can be seen as a denial of our awareness that a course is, in fact, an organic whole rather than a finely-tuned machine, and that it relies more on the effects of the interaction between its parts than on any one part alone.

Here, we look at results of an experiment to design a course evaluation form that would give a more rounded view of the course and acknowledge its interactive nature. The process through which the form was developed is more fully described in Graves and Mackenzie (1997).

What is a three-dimensional course?

We defined a course as comprising three main interconnected parts, the students, the teacher and the materials that are used to stimulate learning. While an argument can be made for including the classroom or institutional environment as an additional factor, for most teachers this factor is fairly immutable and consequently is not considered here. These three factors, then, were seen to interact with each other in a classroom in complex ways over long periods of time to create a course.

We also started from the assumption that the more accurately students can monitor their language development and production, the better able they will be to determine and understand their learning needs and to tailor the learning situation to meet those needs (Blanche & Merino, 1989). Similarly, in order to accurately evaluate a course, students need to know what their abilities are, how much progress they are making, and what they can (or cannot yet) do with the skills they have acquired (Fradd, McGee, and Wilen, 1994). Furthermore, for evaluations to provide beneficial feedback, students should know what impact the other factors in the course are having on them and how they might manipulate them to their best advantage.

The form in Appendix 1 was designed to enable students to reflect first on themselves

within the context of the course and then to reflect on the course within the context of themselves. Essentially, the instrument represents a bi-polar mirror image, with the student on the left-hand side and the course on the right. While the instrument is therefore seemingly two-dimensional, in fact the total image that will be built of the course as a whole will be a three-dimensional one that recognizes the learner as the center of the course, with the teacher, the materials and the students' classmates integral to it.

Because students are being asked to consider all the factors that make up the course, they are able to create a more solid representation of their feelings as learners within the course as well as their perceptions of the course itself. The "3-D effect" is thus achieved through the inclusion of an initial student self-assessment that explicitly links the aims of the students with the aims of the teacher and the materials. The resulting visual representation of the explicit logical links between these different components of the course has the effect of guiding and solidifying student perceptions, and makes it more difficult for the students to treat any one part of the course in isolation.

When students meet the instrument, they are asked to complete the left-hand side first, which immediately puts the focus on them, their aims, and their performance in the course. It also gives them a chance to think about the future. Secondly, they are asked to complete the right-hand side: the sections that ask about the other components of the course. Because they have already focused on themselves and their actual performance during the course, their comments cannot be isolated from the course as a whole. Likewise, the performance of the teacher, the text, and the materials cannot be isolated from the students' own performance or goals.

Seeing the 3-D effect

Although the student is producing a 3-D view of the course for him or herself, the teacher, in order to fully experience the effect, then needs to carefully examine the picture that the student creates. This does take a certain amount of time, but no more than the number-crunching or error checking normally associated with course evaluations. The illustrations below show the kind of 3-D image created when a teacher interprets the completed synthesis forms. These two examples were selected from sheets completed by students in a class of first-year economics majors in Sophia University in the middle of the 1998 academic year.

To see the 3-D effect properly, teachers should relate all the different parts of the evaluation to one another. Reading from left to right across the page allows instructors to first examine how well their students understand the aims of the course, and how well those course aims meet their students' aims. It also permits instructors to see how students are trying to achieve their goals. This explicit statement of learner strategies may not be comprehensive, but it may help give insight into what the students see as valid and useful language learning strategies.

In Figure 1, Kazufumi has two basic goals: to understand more when listening and to speak more fluently. He is unclear about whether he is actually concentrating on listening or making an effort to speak more, but he recognizes the need to do both of these activities in order to improve. He seems satisfied that the text, the teacher and his classmates are helping him to speak and listen more in English, but he would prefer an easier text. He also recognizes that he is speaking too much Japanese to his classmates and that the teacher, through lack of attention to handwriting is creating a barrier to his learning. Kazufumi seems very committed to study outside class. His aim of going to the US for study purposes appears to be the motivation. He also relates course changes to his aims by asking for more listening material in the form of movies and colloquial expressions to help his speaking ability. Indirectly, he suggests that the course needs to be more fun.

Shuji, in Figure 2, also has fairly global goals although he specifically wants to discuss and exchange opinions in class. He also has the additional goal of improving his writing, a goal that is outside the remit of the speaking/listening course in which he is enrolled. Shuji appears to be making an effort to work on those goals but is doing nothing specific about his writing ability, possibly from lack of opportunity. He has no criticisms of the text or teacher, in fact he finds them very useful for achieving his goals. He also finds his classmates very helpful and interesting but notes that "chatting" in Japanese is a problem and that this prevents him from learning. Shuji develops for himself a very clear set of rules for future study including direct application of skills introduced in class and incorporation of teacher and peer feedback. At the same time, he outlines global goals for the teacher and other students. Echoing Kazufumi's comments for the class to be more fun, he wants the teacher to "make the air lively" but at the same time recognizes that for this to happen, his classmates need to make an effort to contribute to building that liveliness.

On the right-hand side, the teacher can then see how well the chosen course materials met the students' learning needs and how well the students thought that the teacher facilitated the conditions necessary for their learning, as well as the role that each student perceives other learners to have played in their performance.

Kazufumi and Shuji both recognize the value of their text and feel that their teacher is helping them and giving enough individual attention. However, they both have suggestions as to how that teacher could improve their learning experience and what additional material might help them learn more or make the class more enjoyable. Both also highlight the negative impact of their classmates speaking in Japanese or going off task.

Finally, reading from top to bottom, the teacher can see how students evaluate their own learning behavior and strategies, and the behavior and strategies of the other course elements. In order to do this, students need to compare their progress with the last assessment, evaluate whether this progress is sufficient or not, and plan changes to their behavior or suggest course changes. It is important for them to examine their motivation and their responsibility as learners, as well as re-evaluate the implicit rationale in the program and in their own learning.

The teacher, in turn, should examine this reflection within the context of the other elements in the course. When the teacher's awareness of the inter-connectedness of these elements is raised, his or her perception of the students' awareness of their place in the course will also jump out. It is at this point, then, that the teacher will also be provided with the more rounded, three-dimensional effect to be gained from a self-assessment approach to course evaluation.

This instrument appears to help students explicitly make the connections between the three components of the course. It further allows them to express their motivational and experiential insights as well as to assess their own progress. All students who have completed this form so far in different teaching contexts have made comments that showed they understood the interconnected nature of the course and that learning is the central responsibility of the learner.

From an administrative point of view, the form acknowledges the large part that the student plays in the creation and development of a course, without abrogating the role that the teacher plays in motivating students and structuring the course in an optimal manner for student success. Further, there is general consensus in the literature that language learning is enhanced if the learner takes initiative in the language learning and assessment process and if responsibility is shared by both the language teacher and the language learner (Pierce, Swain, and Hart, 1993, p. 25).

The evaluative instrument described above has been designed so that it can be

used at any point during the term. Overuse would probably be deleterious to its effects, but we would recommend using it at least at mid- and end of term. Our experience has shown that once every four to five weeks helps both teachers and students maintain their focus on the course and its aims.

Goal-setting should be highlighted at the beginning of term by having students construct their own aims and by reflecting on the course aims. These two should overlap to some extent but need not be identical, since all course design and execution is a negotiated compromise. Instructors should understand that some of the aims they have for their courses may be rejected by students, and that that is a matter of learner choice. In turn, students should understand that some of their aims are not going to be met by the course, since no course can take all student aims into account.

If this is brought to the surface at the beginning and is further supported by teachers regularly asking students to communicate their personal experiences of learning to them throughout the course, it is far less likely that any final course evaluation forms will contain unanticipated student perspectives. When students realize that they are an integral part of the course, their teacher evaluations will reflect the awareness that the student's position and the teacher's position is a partnership that results in learning. The evaluation itself thus takes on more meaning, since the instructor evaluation becomes a reflection of the learners' efforts. If the learner is not interested in learning, the teacher cannot teach and, as Kazufumi noted in Figure 1, if teachers do not make themselves understood well, students cannot learn.

Conclusion

From all sides, then, consistent student self- and course evaluation would appear to be a potentially helpful way to increase the validity of all the information teachers and course designers need to collect from students. Focusing on a self-reflective view of the course over the long term should give the individual student a more balanced and objective perspective, in that psychologically-influenced highs and lows would have more time to be observed during the course. This accords well with a developmental learning process such as language learning and, further, is an important strategy to help develop within each particular learner a greater self-understanding of what is involved in the learning process on an individualized basis.

By using the 3-D instrument, students are, in effect, explicitly encouraged to take over the more powerful role of judging themselves all during the term and to share that judgement regularly with their instructors. These instructors would then, in turn, be able to judge and if necessary alter their materials, their classroom activities, and their own instructional style in light of this information. In both cases, an increase in levels of confidence, autonomy, self-awareness and self-validation could be expected to result from this consistent input of information, since a three-dimensional, interactive view of the course would be more readily available to all participants as they experience their daily learning context.

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Communication, Context, and Constraint: Working through the Riddles

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For most of this century the language teaching profession has been focused on "method" in one way or another. The focus has served us well, but I argue here that we need to develop an understanding of teaching that moves us beyond the mere procedural aspects of teaching implied in much of the methods discussion. The systemic complexities of education today require us to acknowledge that teaching is an institutional accomplishment, rather than an individual *tour de force*. In the classroom, effective teachers develop authentic relationships with students, and they negotiate meanings that permit students to learn. This is accomplished over time, in the minute particulars of routine events, as teachers create a familiar environment for learning activity. Learning is seen as a function of communication, in which an understanding of context and constraint become essential. I elaborate on these ideas and I explore implications for educators.

今世紀の大半にわたり，語学教員はなんらかの「教授法」を開発することに力を注いできた。この尽力は功を奏したのだが，私は教授法の多くの部分を占める単なる方法論的な面を越えた指導法（teaching）の理解を展開していく必要があることを強調したい。また，今日の教育における複雑なシステムを見ても，教えることは制度的に成し遂げて行くものであり，個人の教員の「離れわざ」ではないのである。教室では，有能な教員は学生と真の関係を築き，いかに学生に学び易い環境を提供できるかを絶えず検討する。これを実現するためには，日常の実践を積み重ねる中で教師がより良い学習環境を形成していく必要があるため時間を要するものである。学習はコミュニケーションの一機能として捉えられ，そのコンテクストと制約を理解することはきわめて重要である。私はこれらの考えについてここで詳述し，教育者にとってそれがどのような意味を持つかを探っていきたい。

On riddles, teaching and learning

For most of this century, *method* has framed our understanding of what we do as language teachers, teacher educators, administrators, and researchers (Anthony, 1963; Brown, 1994; Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Stevick, 1978; Stevick, 1996). There was a time when much of the debate seemed focused on establishing the superiority of one method over another (Asher, 1977;

[1] These ideas were developed during my 2 weeks of JALT-sponsored workshops in November, 1998. Many thanks to JALT officers and volunteers—in particular, Andrew Barfield, Lisa Hodginkinson, and Caroline Latham—for a wonderful autumn sojourn; it was a rich interpersonal, intercultural, and intellectual experience. I would also like to thank my UCD students and colleagues—participants in the HACMS doctoral laboratory, LLC 7410, and ITE 5080—for providing an environment of collegial critique in which these ideas were developed. I thank them for their support and encouragement, and I absolve them of all responsibility for errors of interpretation or excesses of enthusiasm. Earl W. Stevick continues to provide editorial comment and collegial encouragement.

Curran, 1972; Gattegno, 1976; Lozanov, 1979). More recently, we have seen a variety of critiques of the construct itself and attempts at developing alternative approaches to understanding teaching (Clarke, 1983; Clarke, 1984; Clarke, 1994; Freeman, 1993; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Lozanov, 1979; Pennycook, 1989; Prabhu, 1990).

This focus has helped us clarify issues and organize our work as individuals and as a profession, although consensus appears to be beyond reach. Perhaps the issue is not so much "Which method or whether or not method?" but rather, "How does the *idea* of method contribute to our understanding of teaching and learning?"

The idea of method is reasonable. Teaching is conventionally understood as procedural behavior—goal-oriented activity with culturally appropriate materials, the sequenced mastery of progressively complex language—and so it is natural that the administrators, policy makers, and the public would conceive of teaching as the effective implementation of method. Teachers themselves, whether novice or experienced, seek ways to improve their teaching, so they are naturally interested in the newest ideas which are customarily framed and presented as matters of method. Scholarly speculation about the importance of method is also reasonable; the individuals writing articles about teaching methods are, by and large, the ones who are charged with the responsibility of preparing new teachers and providing professional development activities for veteran teachers. *Method* is a convenient way of organizing information and exploring concepts.

But we have always known that teaching is more complex than the view captured by a methods perspective. Stevick posed the problem in the form of a riddle:

> In the field of language teaching, Method A is the logical contradiction of Method B: If the assumptions from which A claims to be derived are correct, then B cannot work, and vice versa. Yet one colleague is getting excellent results with A and another is getting comparable results with B. How is this possible? (Stevick, 1978, p.104; Stevick, 1996, p.193)

In recent investigations of literacy instruction in urban classrooms, my colleagues and I had to confront this riddle head on (Clarke, Davis, Rhodes, & Baker, 1996; Clarke, Davis, Rhodes, & Baker, forthcoming). We spent 2 years in the classrooms of three fine teachers whose methods were strikingly different. Mary epitomized whole language, literature-based instruction. Her students read and wrote for long stretches every day, and they worked on projects of their own choosing. Jackie was a bilingual teacher who emphasized making good choices in school and in life. She used technology extensively and her students learned to organize themselves into project-focused learning. Barbara espoused what might be considered to be traditional ideas of teaching and learning—individual accomplishment, hard work, and accountability. She used spelling bees, grammar drill, and leveled reading groups to get students to see themselves as academic achievers. It is hard to imagine how three teachers could be more different in their philosophies and methods. The fact that we had a wide variety of empirical evidence that they were effective—i.e., that their students were positively engaged and learning—only exacerbated our sense of confusion. How could such divergent approaches yield so similar outcomes?

But if that wasn't enough, we encountered 2 variations on the riddle in the course of our research. One surfaced in the first phase of the study (Davis, A. et al., 1992), as we worked in 40 classrooms observing and collecting data and interviewing teachers. We found that we could not predict, based on teachers' descriptions of their theoretical and methodological commitments, the materials and techniques we would see in a classroom.

We experienced the entire range of variations on this apparent contradiction—teachers with similar philosophies yet wildly different practices, teachers with similar practices but emphatically different theoretical positions, and teachers for whom we could find no clear connection between what we understood to be their theory and their practice of teaching[2].

The second variation on the riddle concerned disquieting glimpses of imperfection on the part of our three effective teachers. It is important to remember that we had abundant evidence from two years of study in their classrooms that they were, in fact, very good teachers (Clarke et al., 1996). Yet we observed what we believed to be instances of, at best, questionable decision-making, and at worst, bad teaching: What were we to make of a teacher's prolonged inattention to struggling learners? How to explain the time we watched in amazement as the students laboriously copied the wrong answers onto their practice sheets? And what about the extended drill session in which we were confident that a number of students were merely parroting answers without the faintest understanding what they were saying?

We gradually came to realize that these were problems for us, not for the teachers. We were faced with undeniable evidence that they were good teachers; their students were enthusiastically engaged in learning and they scored high on a variety of outcome measures. If there were contradictions between what we thought they should be doing and what they thought they should be doing, it was up to us to figure out how to reconcile the inconsistencies. Too narrow a focus on details prevented us from seeing the larger patterns of learning.

We also came to see that teaching is a function of communication, and while this may seem obvious, we realized that we had not attended closely to what such a view would entail. I explore this assertion in detail in the following section, but first it is necessary to elaborate further on the insights we acquired as we attempted to untangle these riddles.

Mindful of Occam's admonition of parsimony, I define learning simply as change over time[3]. There may be disciplines that require more delicate distinctions, but as a teacher and researcher working with the usual assortment of indicators—tests, assignments, classroom behavior—I am primarily focused on changes I can see. This means, for one thing, that I treat all evidence of sustained change as learning, and I do not bother with the usual distinctions between learning, acquisition, and development.

A second insight concerns the fact that it is the nature of all living organisms to be constantly changing—I therefore conclude that humans are always learning. Of course, in the case of my students, I cannot be certain that they are learning what I want them to learn. But the fact that they cannot *not* learn seems reassuring—if I can just get their attention, I tell myself, then this natural propensity to learn will take charge and I will be able to nudge them closer to my goals.

And finally, teaching is best understood as an institutional accomplishment, rather than a personal *tour de force*. Teachers have a lot to do with creating an environment conducive to learning, but if order does not exist on a higher level, and if the school does not provide resources and support for teachers, the likelihood of success is greatly diminished. My view of teaching/learning is, therefore, more

[2] I recognize that this statement raises serious questions of representation – that is, who are we to say whether a teacher's theory and practice are congruent. We were very aware of this problem, and took care to avoid making or appearing to make judgments about the value of particular practices. The confusions lingered, however, and this paper represents my efforts at expurgating them.

[3] Stevick reminded me, in an e-mail reaction to a draft of the paper, that he would not say that the change in the color of his hair over the years constitutes learning. He offered the following, which seems consistent with what I am arguing: "change in the internal resources (mostly) of my brain, that enable, influence, and limit but do not fully determine how I react to what comes in from the outside."

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systemic than what the conventional focus on method permits.

Communication

Communication is both a mundane and arcane topic—both the lay person and the specialist have firm opinions about it[4]. The approach I will take is to say that communication occurs when a "fact" becomes "information." A scribble on the blackboard, the teacher holding up her hand, the bell ringing in the hallway—these are merely facts until individual students recognize them as messages with communicative value and respond. Communication does not occur until an individual attaches meaning to the scribble, the hand in the air, or the bell ringing, and I cannot be certain *what* has been communicated until I have some visible evidence from the student.

The message might be intentionally or unintentionally sent by someone, and it may be explicit or implicit. And, even when a message is intentional and explicit, the message received may not be the one intended. I scribble notes in the margins of my students' papers. The explicit messages have to do with the content and mechanics of their papers, but the implicit messages will be a function of the students' experience with such annotations. For one student, they are welcome evidence of my interest in their ideas and their use of language. For another, they are intimidating symbols of authoritarian instruction, omens of a low grade. Another example:

> A teacher strides into the classroom on the first day of the term and declares emphatically, "In my classroom, creative language use is required every single day. I want you to speak up energetically and often. Any questions? Please raise your hands before you speak."

This event contains many messages, but we would have to observe and interview students to guess what was, in fact, communicated. One student might understand the teacher to have said precisely what the teacher intended— "Be active; participate." Another student may have noticed the contradiction between the admonition to "speak up energetically and often" and the requirement that students raise their hands before speaking; for this student the communication might be, "Mixed messages! I had better keep my head down until I discover what the teacher really wants." A third student might have been so intimidated by the bold demeanor of the teacher that s/he did not really process any of the spoken language; for this student, the main communication might be something like, "better keep quiet in this class because this teacher is a tyrant." A fourth student might have been so distracted by the physical attractiveness and self-confidence of the teacher that s/he did not hear a word of the speech; the communication for this student might be simple happiness at being in the class.

The communication effected depends on the interaction of the myriad messages, verbal and non-verbal, being sent by the teacher, on the one hand, and the attention and unique history of each student, on the other. "Seems obvious," you say. "How does this contribute to the attempt to understand teaching and learning?" Very simply—if I am to be an effective teacher, I must attend to what the students are understanding by my teaching. This may appear to be hair-splitting, because of course, all teachers monitor what students are

[4] I draw on a number of traditions in this conceptualization of communication – information theory, cybernetics, social psychology–but there is neither space nor need to go into a detailed examination of the history of the construct. Suffice to say that the work of Gregory Bateson and scholars influenced by him figures prominently in my thinking (Bateson, 1972; Bowers & Flinders, 1990; Harries-Jones, 1995; Ruesch & Bateson, 1968; Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967; Wilden, 1980; Wilden, 1987), as does the thinking of interpretive anthropologist Clifford Geertz (Geertz, 1973; Geertz, 1983; Geertz, 1995). In addition, as a result of work in the HACMS doctoral lab, I have begun to incorporate ideas from scholars working in activity theory (Cole, 1996; Leontiev, 1981; Vygotsky, 1962; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1998).

learning, but I think it encourages an important shift of attention from teacher behavior to the student behavior. Taken to its logical conclusion, this approach would lead teachers to forsake their commitments to particular methods and to adopt a radical eclecticism—one in which all methods are considered equal depending on student achievement.

There is another point to be attended to: *Understanding* does not always result in *learning*. *Understanding* occurs in the moment. *Learning* is change over time. Patterns of communication over time shape the understanding of individuals, and changes in behavior provide evidence of this change. We cannot say learning has occurred until we notice a sustained change in behavior. I have often had the experience of completing a lesson confident that students had mastered a particular point, only to encounter errors in their compositions or speech that demonstrate otherwise. They understood the material at the time we covered it in the lesson, but they had not learned it sufficiently well for it to become part of their unconscious repertoire.

Two final points: I assume that everyone is always learning, so this perspective applies with equal force to teachers as well as students. In a very important sense, I believe that classrooms in which teachers are not actively and enthusiastically learning present poor prospects for student learning. Also, I am focused on visible evidence of learning; I concede that important changes in attitude may be occurring that would need to be taken into account in a complete exposition of learning. But for the moment, behavioral change will suffice for the points I am trying to make.

This approach requires us to broaden our understanding of student learning. In addition to the content of the course, students learn about themselves; they acquire a sense of identity as they interact with teachers and fellow students.

> An organism can learn only that which is taught by the circumstances of living and the experiences of exchanging messages with those around him (sic). He cannot learn at random, but only to be like or unlike those around him. (Bateson, 1972, p. 234)

They learn about their teachers and about the nature of school and society as portrayed in our classes. The most enduring of the lessons they learn from us are probably the unconscious ones, the apperceptive learnings that come from participating in school. These are important lessons; perhaps even more important than the content of the curriculum. But what, precisely, individuals learn depends on what they attend to in the course of a lesson, and this point requires an understanding of context.

Context

The argument I am developing rests on the assertion that each individual constructs a unique understanding of what is going on. I recognize that in most situations the majority of people involved in an activity have enough of a common understanding of what is going on that satisfactory communication occurs, but even if this is true, this perspective poses significant challenges for teachers. The assertion is, essentially, that what matters is not the methods or materials themselves, but their meaning, and this will vary from individual to individual (Bateson, 1972; Watzlawick et al., 1967; Wilden, 1987). Context, therefore, is defined as the information the individual uses to make his or her next move (Bateson, 1972, p. 289). This deceptively simple definition carries with it at least two implications. First, it acknowledges the relativity of the construct; everyone brings his or her unique history to bear on a situation, and thereby constructs a unique under-standing of what is going on. And second, it reminds us that context is not a *thing*; it is not a container, nor a place nor even a particular time. Context is a highly

abstract matter—it exists in the mind of the perceiver.

This leads to a logical but challenging conclusion—that, as we attempt to understand lessons, we need to focus, not on what the teacher is doing, but on what the students appear to be noticing. Learning requires a minimal level of attention, and it requires that the individual register the importance of what s/he is attending to. S/he must see how the situation or events make a difference to him or her, register this difference, and incorporate it into established repertoires of thinking and acting.

This notice of a difference between the events of the moment and hitherto unquestioned understanding of the item under scrutiny is a difference that makes a difference (Bateson, 1972, pp. 448-466), roughly equivalent to what Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1978, pp. 84-91) referred to as learning that occurs within the *zone of proximal development*, and what Krashen has called *i + 1* (Krashen, 1981, p. 100). This approach to understanding teaching and learning has been taken by a number of scholars. What may not always be fully appreciated is that everyone involved in the discussion is operating by the same rules—not just the language learners. When researchers observe teachers, they attempt to align the observed activities with theoretical and philosophical principles. Teachers monitor events according to the goals for the lesson. Students focus on a wide variety of personal concerns. Everyone is noticing something, but it is unlikely that that *something* is the same for everyone.

So, we have arrived at a point of almost incalculable complexity. People are spontaneous and creative, and they may or may not be paying attention to what we want them to notice; we cannot make them learn. Teaching is not merely a matter of following a prescribed set of procedures; it requires us to monitor all the messages we are sending and to calculate the effect they are having on the students. How, then, do we organize ourselves so that we enter the classroom on Monday morning with a reasonable chance of success? This is where an understanding of *constraints* comes in handy.

Constraint

We cannot control students and we cannot make them learn what we want them to learn. The best we can do is manipulate constraints so as to increase the probability that they will notice the points we want them to notice, adjust their thinking and behavior accordingly, and acquire the knowledge, attitudes and skills that we are interested in having them acquire. *Constraint* is any factor that renders an outcome less than random. I am using the term in the sense Bateson uses *restraint*; "... the course of events is said to be subject to *restraints*, and it is assumed that, apart from such restraints, the pathways of change would be governed only by equality of probability." (Bateson, 1972, p. 399)

I once videotaped two gifted teachers and then sat with them and viewed the tapes while discussing the constraints on their decision making. They came up with eleven general considerations that influenced their decision-making: personal preferences, physical space, time, resources, interpersonal factors, institutional factors, community, professional philosophy, routine, assessment considerations, curriculum (Clarke, 1992). The particular items on the list are not particularly important; each teacher will have a slightly different list depending on particular circumstances. What matters is that we recognize that these are areas over which we have some degree of control, and that it is our responsibility to assure coherence in the messages we send out in each area. How does the configuration of furniture reflect my conviction that students should talk to each other as much as possible? Do I permit class discussion to "run over" the established time limits, to give students a chance to express themselves? Have I made contact with parents and do I include community representatives in my learning

activities? How do I grade students and what are my classroom management techniques—do these reflect my core values? Do my assessment procedures reflect my instructional goals? Do my students know what I believe to be important?

Teaching, therefore, becomes less a matter of following established procedures and more a function of attending to what is going on around me, and of adjusting my behavior to increase the likelihood of student learning.

Summary and implications

Let me summarize the main points of the argument I have made. Learning is change over time. Teaching is communication through many modes, the orchestration of events so that students acquire the content of the curriculum. It is far more than that, however, because students are learning all manner of attitudes and skills merely by participating in activities that I have organized. I must, therefore, attend to all the potential messages I send out merely by being who I am and by organizing my teaching the way I do.

So, how does this view of language learning and teaching illuminate the riddles we were struggling with above, and how does the idea of *method* contribute to language teaching and learning? As with most riddles, the confusion comes from the assumptions with which we addressed the situation we were interested in.

Unwittingly, we had adopted a causal view of teaching and learning, and we were assuming that there was a linear relationship between teaching methods and learner achievement—if one adopted these methods, particular learnings would occur. We were also assuming that teaching was, in some sense, merely a matter of going through the procedures prescribed by a method; why else would we assume that we could learn about a teacher's teaching merely by learning the names s/he gave for particular activities? As we observed Mary, Jackie, and Barbara, we assumed that we knew what merited our attention. We were narrowly focused on particular curricular outcomes and we thought we knew how they should be achieved. We were being narrowly purposive (Bateson, 1972, pp. 426-439) attending only to traditional academic outcomes and assuming a linear relationship between the particulars of the moment and the larger patterns of learning that would play out over the course of the school term. The teachers, meanwhile, were attending to other purposes, knowing that the details would fall into place over time. And finally, we assumed that there was a magical link between the verbal messages they use to describe their teaching philosophy and method, and the messages they send non-verbally; we did not allow for the complexity of communicational phenomena in the language classroom.

Mary, Jackie, and Barbara were not similar in their classroom behaviors, nor in the ways that they framed their teaching on a philosophical level, but they were very much the same in one important regard—they were clear on their core values and they understood how their teaching decisions related to those values. The implications of this approach to language education are many. I explore these in detail elsewhere (Clarke, 1999); I will mention a few here to conclude.

As a teacher I must continue to remind myself that the map is not the territory—the name of the method is but a label that refers, imperfectly, to a wide variety of experience. My best efforts at creating a communicative classroom, for example, may strike some learners as an intimidating environment where the familiar roles of teacher and learner have been lost.

I must not be distracted by the debate over the labels and jargon used in the profession. I will continue to use the methods debates as a source of new ideas for teaching, taking what I can use and leaving the rest. I need to focus instead on the particulars of experience and on how students are responding to the classroom activities I have devised. I will continue to

focus on the importance of relationship and communication in my classrooms. Stevick has said this for many years: "What matters is what goes on inside and between people." (Stevick, 1980; Stevick, 1996) At the same time, I need to remember that I cannot make this happen; the best I can do is to create structures, procedures, and materials that increase their probability.

My current effort is a struggle to understand classroom phenomena as recursive loops of experience and to pay attention to the effect that minute changes have on the learning of students. My colleagues and I have settled somewhat tentatively on *episode, activity, practice* as a way of articulating the level of scale we attend to as researchers or teachers. Episodes are the fleeting interactions we have with students in the normal course of events—they may last a few seconds to several minutes. By activities we mean the conventionally understood instructional ploys; this is a somewhat slippery concept—teaching stratagems with a recognizable beginning, middle, and end. They may last anywhere from a few minutes to several weeks. Practice is used to refer to the larger patterns of the school year, the characteristic structures and procedures that identify a teacher as unique. We have come to realize that what matters is not the ideological symmetry of episode, activity, and practice, but the efficacy of particular behaviors in moving students toward a particular goal, and that we must keep an eye on student learning as primary goal.

Above all, I will continue to work to refine my understanding of my core values. What are the rules I live by? What do I value in people, in education, in myself? How do these show up in my teaching? Would my students, if queried, attribute the same values to my actions that I do? I must guard against ideological and theoretical myopia; I must strive for flexibility in the ways I work and I must struggle to see the unintended effects of my work.

As I work with teachers, I try to pass along these insights and to create activities within which prospective and veteran teachers can experience values-based teaching through participation in a wide variety of teaching situations. I want to offer my own experience and understanding to others, but I must constantly remind myself that the way I see the world is a function of my own experiences and biases. I want to help prospective teachers identify elements of the canon they can believe in, and encourage them to develop their own theoretical framework based on both book learning and classroom experience.

I am working to develop partnerships between school, university, and community that permit individuals to step out of role and experience language teaching from a wide variety of perspectives (Clarke, Davis, Rhodes, & Baker, 1998). I seek diversity and variety at all levels of education, both for myself and for my students. Above all, I want to avoid prescriptions. People learn by doing, and they learn best if they are experimenting with their own ideas. I want to give them opportunities to fail and to learn from their failures.

Perhaps the most challenging admonition to myself is to beware of mistaking point for pattern in my observations of teaching and learning. My inclination is to want to act immediately to remedy a situation, to correct an error. But I must learn to be patient, to use multiple indicators of learning, to trust people and processes.

Editorial note

William of Ockham, born in the village of Ockham in Surrey (England) about 1285, was a philosopher and theologian of the 14th century. The medieval rule of parsimony, or principle of economy, frequently used by Ockham came to be known as **Ockham's razor**. The rule states that *plurality should not be assumed without necessity.*

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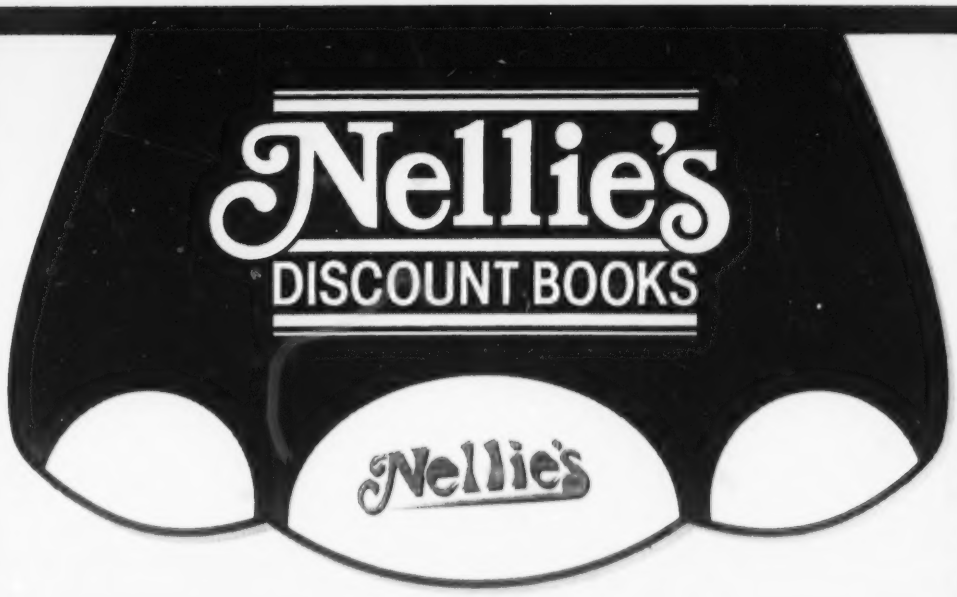

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